

# SOCIAL EDUCATION

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# The Development of America

**Fremont P. Wirth,** *Professor of History, George Peabody College for Teachers*

This functional history, the most widely used high school history, presents a unit organization which preserves the values of chronological arrangement and yet places emphasis on topical units which link present events with the past. This gives the student an intelligent understanding of our cultural background and helps him to analyze, evaluate, and understand present-day social, economic, and political problems. Further aids include: learning exercises, questions on the text, projects, problems for investigation, oral reports, debates, comparisons and contrasts, vocabulary drills, identifications, map exercises, charts, and carefully selected readings.

**Textbook**

**Recent Events**

**Workbook**

**Key to Workbook**

**Tests**

**Teacher's Manual**

## Across the Ages • The Story of Man's Progress

**Louise I. Capen,** *Head of Social Science Department, Barringer High School, Newark, N.J.*

The eighteen units of this book fall into three major groups: Background, Leading Human Experiences, and Present Control. Each unit develops from the past to present, with America as the focal point—all welded together into a composite portrayal of world history. The book stresses the geographical factors that have molded history and emphasizes the seven physical factors by which men have lived: food, shelter, clothing, communication, transportation, trade, and recreation. It interprets man's higher aspirations as expressed through religion, art, education, medicine, science, and literature. The style is simple and clear and teaching materials are incorporated into the book.

**Textbook**

**Current World Events**

**Workbook**

**Time-line Charts**

**Handbook and**

**Teacher's Guide**

# American Book Company

## Editor's Page

### THE HARVARD REPORT

**H**ARVARD UNIVERSITY'S Committee on the Objectives of a General Education in a Free Society has explored "the entire problem of providing an adequate education for all American youth" and considered "the general education of the great majority of each generation—not the comparatively small minority who attend our four-year colleges."

The Report of the Committee<sup>1</sup> deals in the main with secondary and college education. It reviews the rapid growth of enrollments since 1870, the influx into high schools of an increasing number of youth—now three-fourths of the total—who do not go on to college, and the resulting multiplication of high school offerings. It asserts that "the modern high school must find place for every kind of student whatever his hopes and talents," and recognizes that the conventional academic subjects are no longer suitable for the great mass of high school students: "too little has been done for the slow especially." It finds, however, that the effort in recent decades to provide for a range of needs, interests, and abilities has divided the school population into groups, creating possibilities of "misunderstanding and class distinction," failing to provide either "binding ties of common standards" or the common body of experience implied by our commitment to democracy.

The Report also reviews the impact of social change on education: industrialization, urbanization, the changing influence on youth of the family and the church. It recognizes the increased responsibility of schools in fields of health and athletics, extracurricular activities, counseling and vocational guidance, and social life for youth. It notes the need for better support of rural education, with its implication for increased support of education by the federal government; it suggests the desirability of federal subvention of very

able students. It calls for better qualified teachers, better supported and freed from political interference in professional matters.

All this is realistic, as are the later analyses of individual differences in intelligence, interest, character, and in school performance and achievement at any given grade level. Existing inequality of educational opportunity among different income groups and in different geographic areas is similarly faced.

**A**CCCEPTING the need for both general and special education, the Report attempts to reconcile the two and to sketch a curriculum that provides for both. General education is defined as "that part of a student's whole education which looks first of all to his life as a responsible human being and citizen"; special education as "that part which looks to the student's competence in some occupation."

General education is concerned with the three areas of natural science, social studies, and humanities—with both their bodies of knowledge and their distinctive methods. It is also concerned with abilities to think effectively, to communicate thought, to make relevant judgments, and to discriminate among values. It is further concerned with developing "the good man, the good citizen, and the useful man"—and, withal, integrated personalities.

No universal program is proposed, for "though common aims must bind together the whole educational system, there exists no one body of knowledge, no single system of instruction equally valid for every part of it." But in the secondary curriculum the Report proposes that at least half and preferably two-thirds of the student's time be given to the three areas—to "the physical world, man's corporate life, [and] his inner visions and standards." The distribution of the eight units contemplated for the minimum half time would give three to English, three to science, and two to social studies. The Report urges an additional general education course in each of

<sup>1</sup> *General Education in a Free Society*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1945. Pp. xix, 267. \$2.00.



the three areas, which would bring the total allocation to general education to two-thirds of the student's time.

Courses would be differentiated in difficulty and method to an extent that "extracurricular activities and the general atmosphere of the school . . . are perhaps the only identical experiences of all students." The remaining third, or possibly half, of the program would be given to special training—to vocational and business courses, work with arts, agriculture, and home economics, "and a thousand other practical fields," possibly including work experience.

For Harvard College (the Report makes no recommendations for other colleges) it is recommended that of the sixteen courses required for the bachelor's degree six be in general education, with at least one in each of the three great areas. The Report reacts against both survey courses and courses intended to serve as bases of departmental specialization.

#### SOCIAL STUDIES PROPOSALS

**T**HERE is no need here to go into the details of the recommendations for Harvard College, or for the secondary school courses in the humanities and science, though the interrelationships of the humanities and science with the social studies are extensive and important. But what are the recommendations for the social studies?

The importance of out-of-school influences, of student government, and of extracurricular activities in building good citizenship are explicitly recognized. Though materials and methods may vary, slight ground is found for differentiation of social studies subject matter for different groups in the school population except that those who will go on to college are advised to postpone to college their study of government, economics, and sociology.

For the lower grades it is suggested that "children can begin to gain some comprehension of the customs, the methods of making a living, and the traditions of peoples remote from their own experience, as well as some sense of the historical development of their own communities." The value of geography is noted, with warnings against the merely picturesque and the sentimental. For the seventh and eighth grades community life and civics and narrative American history are recommended for schools where many students leave before the eleventh grade. In order to avoid repetition the Committee prefers, however, that American history be left to high school.

For the ninth and tenth grades, where social studies might have the status of half rather than of full courses, European history, or general history and geography, are mentioned. "No one should graduate from secondary school who has not had a considerable amount of work in the history of modern civilization"; the focus should be on the modern period and on Europe, but with attention to relations with other areas, especially Asia; geography, linked with history, should not be neglected. American history is strongly urged for the eleventh grade, but its repetition at successive levels is condemned; the necessity for experience in gathering and weighing evidence is emphasized. The concluding twelfth year courses in the nature of modern society should be in terms of topics dealt with in college departments of government, economics, and sociology: "the goals and the values, the organization and the processes, the problems and conflicts in the political structure, the economic life, and the social relationships which go to make up the United States."

Tendencies to superficiality, quick generalizations, and lack of discipline in social studies teaching are criticized; college and university deficiencies in teacher-training programs are held partly responsible for existing weaknesses. The need for attention to health, human relationships, vocational guidance, and—by implication at least—to personal problems of youth is accepted, but without explicit recommendations.

**T**HE Report is, understandably enough, stronger in analyzing needs in secondary education than in meeting them, in establishing principles than in applying them. Setting out to reestablish a basic unity in the education of all American youth it is nevertheless repeatedly driven back by the great range of individual differences, and the vastness of organized knowledge to recommending flexibility which, when applied, is not likely to bring the unity that is desired. The firmness of the Report in dealing with the program of Harvard undergraduates, whom the Committee knows firsthand, contrasts sharply with the detached vagueness of its proposals for the range of children and youth in schools, whom obviously the Committee does not know firsthand.

The Report is weakest in its lack of grasp of the desperate problems of developing good citizenship in underprivileged areas, where the rest

(Continued on page 68)



# A New Kind of National History

Francis Godwin James

TODAY there are few Americans who are not acutely conscious of our country's vital place in the contemporary world. President Roosevelt's death was a world event. San Francisco will never again be simply the name of an American city; it has become a symbol which belongs to universal history. We have never played such a role before; no nation has.

Yet since the day that Columbus returned from his first voyage the development of the old and the new world has never been separated. Every discovery, every settlement, every dispute on the American continents has agitated some foreign chancellery or merchant's office. And what major event in Europe or Asia, whether a war, a revolution, or a scientific invention, has not affected Americans—causing conflicts along our frontiers, encouraging or hampering our trade, or sending us some new stream of immigrants? The American experience is unique but not isolated. Nor has the growth of any other national culture been independent of the evolution of the modern world as a whole.

The emergence of the national state has been perhaps the most obvious political trend of the last few centuries, and nationalism threatens to dominate the immediate future. On the other hand these same centuries have witnessed the creation of the most interdependent and nearly universal culture that has ever existed. Many educators and historians have appreciated this pervasive trend toward a world civilization. Recognizing its significance they have sought ways of interpreting its meaning to the student. The most popular method employed has been to encourage the study of the history of either Western or world civilization. There are weaknesses in

National histories are still indispensable. But the interrelationships of national histories and the development of a world community must also be understood. An assistant professor of history in the Carnegie Institute of Technology analyzes some weaknesses in our teaching of national and world history, recent efforts to improve on old patterns, and possibilities for further revision.

herent in such a general treatment of history, but it would appear that many schools and colleges are satisfied that such broad courses are both valuable and necessary.<sup>1</sup>

Whether the more general courses become more or less popular, there is a distinct need for the special courses in the history of particular nations, especially for their respective citizens. Few would dispute that in the future, as today, courses in various national histories will continue to be offered along with more extensive ones in Western, modern, or world civilization. In fact the awakened interest in parts of the world outside of the area of our peculiar cultural heritage has given birth to new regional and national histories dealing with Latin America, the Orient, and Russia. The important question is, are the special courses now taught in a manner commensurable with a cosmopolitan interpretation of civilization, or do they serve to obscure the world unity which is now emerging? Must they, to paraphrase H. G. Wells, be "hole and corner" history, or can they be a valuable supplement to our study of universal history?

## THE UNITY OF NATIONAL HISTORIES

TO most students in both our schools and colleges American history is one subject; European, modern, or world history another. They have little sense of any interrelationship. I knew of a candidate for a master's degree in American history (and a high school teacher in that field) who could not tell what was happening in Europe at the time of the War of 1812! To a lesser extent this same narrow approach is characteristic of our present courses in French, English, and other national histories. However, in the case of United States history the lack of a broader treatment is especially serious. Many of the textbooks dealing with general history are written

<sup>1</sup> For a critical discussion of these general courses and a suggestion as to how they may be improved, see Thomas C. Mendenhall, "The Introductory College Course in Civilization," *American Historical Review*, XLIX: 681-684, July, 1944. A more favorable discussion of these courses is given by Eric C. Kollman, "The New 'World History,'" *Social Education*, VII: 342-346, December, 1943.

with the assumption that the reader already knows everything necessary concerning America, and thus practically all reference to this country is omitted. Such a strict division between national and general history may be convenient, but it is artificial and grievously misleading.

In proposing a new interpretation of national history it is not, of course, desirable to substitute an imperialistic emphasis. It would be easy to consider the history of the United States in terms of our present tremendous influence and power, and in such a manner as to encourage an insufferable patriotic pride, devoid of all perspective. Nothing could be more harmful. It would be equally foolish to foster among students that kind of sentimental internationalism which would blind them to realities. Rather we should aim to create a new habit of thought, a new approach; one that unconsciously views national development as an integral part of global development. Many profess to appreciate the importance of such a cosmopolitan attitude in solving the problems of the future. Can we interpret the future in these terms without first achieving a reorientation of our knowledge of the past?

There may be some who will claim that we have already learned to study national history with this kind of viewpoint. Certainly many individual writers and teachers have made an effort. In some fields, such as diplomatic or military history, a broader treatment has been inevitable, while much work has also been done in the realm of intellectual history and in the history of art and literature. Yet does, for example, the ordinary student of United States history give more than a passing thought to the rest of the world, until perhaps the period of the First World War? It is true that in the colonial era the fate of America was so obviously interwoven with that of Europe that even the most chauvinistic writer must recognize the fact. Thus of necessity we give some consideration to our initial European background. But do we really attempt to understand America's position in the seventeenth and eighteenth century world?

#### RECOGNITION OF INTERRELATIONSHIPS

SOME excellent historical writing has concerned itself with the Spanish and French Empires, and with the other British colonies, yet many of us seem all but oblivious of the existence of other colonial regions. We are familiar with the old story of how every struggle between Britain and her continental rivals was duplicated

in the new world: the War of the Spanish Succession becoming over here Queen Anne's War; the Seven Years' War, the French and Indian War; and so forth.

Do we appreciate the fact, however, that some of these conflicts began as imperial struggles and spread to Europe? The Second Anglo-Dutch War broke out in the slave ports of West Africa and in New Netherlands, although its greatest battle was fought in the English Channel. The first blood of the Seven Years' War was not shed in Silesia, nor on the banks of the Rhine, but in Western Pennsylvania and along the shores of the Bay of Bengal. Before Yorktown had brought us victory we had succeeded in involving most of the nations of Europe in our struggle for independence. Had our Confederate statesmen had their way the Civil War would have become an international conflict.

Our relations with the outside world have not, fortunately, been exclusively in the electric atmosphere of international rivalry. Ever since 1492 the Americas have imported from, and exported to, all parts of the globe every variety of commodities, ideas, and persons: agricultural products, machinery, books, laws, inventions, economic and political "isms," religions, criminals, writers, soldiers, agitators, and even pests. Louis Adamic's "two-way passage" is nothing new. Downing Street is named for a Harvard graduate. Some American authors and intellectuals, such as Poe and perhaps even Franklin, have been more fully appreciated abroad than at home. Others have virtually migrated across the Atlantic, as did Henry James and T. S. Elliot, or the early painters West or Copley. Even more foreign geniuses have contributed to our creative efforts, particularly in music and the arts. As Morison and Commager point out<sup>2</sup> a Frenchman planned the city of Washington, an Irishman designed the White House, and an American and an Englishman cooperated in creating the Capitol. The Smithsonian Institute bears the name of its British founder.<sup>3</sup>

In the realm of political practices and theory the interchange is perhaps still more significant. Our revolution and experiment in democracy were both a shock and an inspiration to Europe

<sup>2</sup> S. E. Morison and H. S. Commager, *The Growth of the American Republic* (New York: Oxford, 1937), I, 281.

<sup>3</sup> Professor Michael Kraus in an article, "History for a World of United Nations," gives other examples of this cultural interplay between America and Europe. *Social Education*, VIII: 307-308, November, 1944.



and Latin America. Conversely the French Revolution had much to do with the formation of the two great American political parties. Tom Paine had not been in this country two years when he wrote *Common Sense*, perhaps the most influential pamphlet of the revolutionary period. Later he played a role in the French struggle, for he was in fact an international agitator. The names of Gallatin, Lafayette, Schurz, and many others enjoy a cherished place in our annals. The ghosts of Locke and Montesquieu were present at the framing of our constitution. Several European leaders like Kossuth and Garibaldi visited or lived in America; De Valera was born here.

One could continue almost indefinitely listing famous travelers and authors, and a host of obscure men and women, whose spoken and written words have carried ideas both ways across the Atlantic, and to a lesser extent across the wider expanse of the Pacific. As individual cases many are well known and find mention in numerous books; but the full significance of this interplay of men and ideas is seldom impressed upon the average student. Often he is scarcely aware of its existence.

#### MODERN GROWTH OF INTERDEPENDENCE

FOR the past hundred and fifty years the national state has dominated the world scene, particularly in the nineteenth century. Since so much of United States history falls within this period, historians have naturally concentrated their attention on our internal development. One is tempted to ask whether it can be necessary to look abroad to understand our westward movement, Jacksonian democracy, the struggle over slavery, the beginnings of industrialization, the conflict with Mexico, or even the war with Spain. Once the Monroe Doctrine had proclaimed the independence of all the Americas why worry about the machinations of Metternich, Napoleon III, Disraeli, or Bismarck?

All of the movements mentioned above were distinctly American, but they cannot be fully understood when studied in isolation. Was not the very nationalism of the age an international phenomenon? These were the decades that saw wars of annexation and unification (like our own Mexican and Civil Wars) in Italy and in Germany; and that witnessed the expansion of Europeans into new frontiers in Canada, South Africa, South America, Australia, and Siberia, as well as in our own "wild west." It was also at this time that other great nations were becoming in-

dustrialized; and were consuming their energies in forging new types of governments.

This absorption in domestic affairs was indeed quite universal. We recall happily that between 1814 and 1917 we were involved in no great international war. But who was? Between Waterloo and Sarajevo the nearest thing to a general conflict was the Crimean War—fought in one small corner of Russia. One wonders what did more to keep European imperialism away from this hemisphere, the Monroe Doctrine, the *laissez-faire* economics of the Manchester School, or the rise of the German Empire. If one will but reflect how greatly these last two affected, respectively, the economic and diplomatic policies of the major powers, one will not find the question irrelevant. On the other hand, it should not be forgotten that American independence did much to substantiate Adam Smith's arguments against mercantilism and to inspire German nationalism.

In another respect we are compelled to view the nineteenth century world as a unit from which the United States cannot be disentangled. If this was an era in which men's efforts were directed less toward international strife and more toward domestic change, it was also an age of expanding world trade and above all of international intellectual ferment. The noisy battles between reform and reaction were fought by armies of scholars, propagandists, and revolutionaries, as heterogeneous nationally as the Foreign Legion. Trace, for example, the rise of socialism, the conflicting racial theories, the struggle over slavery, or the campaign for women's rights. Could one confine a study of any of these within the bounds of a single nation? Follow the story of any new productive technique and you must disregard oceans, territorial frontiers, and class boundaries.

As a haven for both the idealist and the opportunist from all lands, the United States knew almost every kind of agitation for reform. Despite the efforts of the Know Nothings, the later K.K.K., and every other ethnocentric group, our destiny has ever been to play host to innumerable "alien" ideologies—and to produce and export some peculiar brands of our own. Robert Owen's socialist theories were tested in an Indiana community. The Southern planters acclaimed the racial doctrines of Count Gobineau (as did the later Nazis), just as their fiery opponents, the Abolitionists, drew strength from the British Emancipation Act of 1833. The activities of Florence Nightingale were no more without in-



fluence in America than were those of Amelia Bloomer in Europe. The German economist, Friedrich List, while in this country was converted to the economic nationalism of Hamilton and the "American System." Upon returning to the fatherland he did much to propagate similar doctrines, founding a school the modern descendants of which have included the Nazi economists. Americans like William Ladd were pioneers in the international peace movement that bore fruit in the League. American business methods as well as products have encircled the globe.

#### THE NEED FOR BROADER UNDERSTANDING

THERE may be some whose patriotic pride is too sensitive to permit an objective consideration of the foreign elements in American culture, or to recognize the detrimental as well as the beneficial influences of the United States upon other cultures. Most of us, however, have reached a stage where we are anxious to make a truthful evaluation of our civilization. We have achieved too much to be afraid to admit what we owe to others. We *are* different, as is every people, and it would be both ridiculous and dangerous to deny our distinct character. Peaceful cooperation requires an understanding of each nation's peculiarities. But it is likewise imperative that we perceive what is shared in common. All of the leading national cultures have been heavy borrowers; therein lies one great source of their strength. Assuredly no shame is attached to the wise selection and adaptation of a new idea which suits one's needs, whatever its origin. In the realm of ideas, as well as of commodities, he who only exports must eventually give away his heritage without recompense.

The above remarks should serve to indicate some of the broader aspects of American history which, I believe, are disregarded in most treatments of the subject. If, as appears evident, all peoples are now inevitably and inexorably members of one world-wide community, then it is imperative that the youth of every land understand the place of their own national development in world history. This does not mean that the student should learn less about his native culture, but that he should always study its history, or that of any other region, against a world background.

#### NEW PATTERNS OF COURSE ORGANIZATION

IT IS not easy to appreciate the various ways in which our treatment of national history

can be recast into international terms. More is involved than the inclusion of a host of new facts to bewilder the student. Yet when we attempt new interpretations we are hampered by the prejudices of our limited training. The initial barrier, our unconscious nationalistic viewpoint, is perhaps the greatest obstacle. In a recent article, Professor Fred L. Parrish states most justly that, "It seems inevitable that the social-science teacher of the future will interpret human relations from a historical horizon that is world wide, no matter what the subject matter may be."<sup>4</sup> Before any progress toward such a goal is possible each teacher and author must examine the question in terms of his own experience and knowledge. If the result is a deep conviction of the need for a new approach then he will be ready to tackle the specific problems entailed in the revision of the teaching and writing of national history.

Some noteworthy attempts have already been made, as for example Professor George Pierson's upper class course at Yale in the foreign relations of American culture, and Professor Eugene H. Byrne's more general course in American history at Barnard College. The Program in American Civilization, at Princeton, has given evidence of its concern with this problem by publishing a group of essays, *The Foreign Influences in American Life*.<sup>5</sup> The American history course designed for the A.S.T.P., at least in its objectives, ventured in the right direction. However, when general tests were sent out for the A.S.T.P. students the questions asked were largely confined to conventional topics. Perhaps the authors of these examinations appreciated the limited approach of most teachers, and were aware that no text was available which treated United States history from a world point of view, although some books, like Morison and Commager, have made progress along these lines.

Much more work of this character has undoubtedly been accomplished than is here indicated, and it is reasonable to expect that such efforts will increase steadily. But the speed at which new attitudes permeate the teaching profession can be painfully slow, especially if the public is indifferent or hostile. Faced with the postwar problems, our colleges filled with a generation of students who have seen service in many lands, can we afford to wait?

<sup>4</sup>"Some Implications of a World Point of View," *Social Education*, VII: 156, April, 1943.

<sup>5</sup>David F. Bowers, Ed. Princeton University Press, 1944.

## POSSIBILITIES OF FURTHER REORGANIZATION

More is of new we at- ered by e initial wpoint, ent arti- st justly -science an rela- id wide, e."4 Be- possible e ques- knowl- of the e ready in the national ly been ierson's elations ene H. an his- Ameri- vidence blishing nes in course s objec- owever, A.S.T.P. ly con- authors limited are that d States though r, have

WHAT are the concrete steps which might be taken to broaden our study of national history? It is to be hoped that qualified persons will soon provide a new type of textbook; one that will give proper consideration to the foreign elements in a culture, and to the significance of a country's evolution for the rest of the world. Until then, and of course even afterwards, teachers must familiarize themselves with the growing literature dealing with the international exchange of ideas, institutions, and customs, as well as with the studies on such subjects as trade, population movements, diplomacy and war. Some of these works (both primary and secondary) afford good material for student reading and papers. It would also seem possible for both the teachers and the students to do a certain amount of simple but specific work in the comparative study of civilizations; always attempting to appreciate how the institutions and ideologies of a nation are unique, and in what respects they are universal.

It is also essential that we learn to consider each historical event or trend in a broader light, requiring ourselves and our students to discover its antecedents and effects beyond the limits of the region under special study. Much, for example, has been said of the influence of the frontier on American history—perhaps too much. Yet, if I am not mistaken, the influence of the frontier on European development has been largely neglected; although in the days of free immigration the American west offered the same outlet to the people across the Atlantic that it did to the inhabitants of our eastern seaboard. The difference was chiefly one of degree. (In passing,

it could be observed that, despite the work of Hansen, Wittke, and others, many students do not even understand the significance of this immigration for the United States.) To take an illustration from the history of another nation, does the ordinary student in a course in English history compare the origin and development of Parliament with that of the Estates General, the Cortes, or the Imperial Diet? Probably such a comparison cannot be too detailed, but can one comprehend the character of English constitutional growth without some attempt to discover why parliamentary government became entrenched in Britain while it was uprooted elsewhere? And what of the effect of the English experiment upon later continental growth? Is it not time for the historian to learn to cross and recross those national frontiers imprinted upon our imagination, boundaries which so often obscure the true pattern of human history and the development of all nations?

The future will not demand less patriotism; but the present has already compelled us to accept a very different concept of our national destiny than most of us were originally taught. The years ahead will call forth yet more radical changes in our thinking. Our study of history must help to prepare us to meet this challenge. It has long been recognized that local history—of a community, a state, or a section—can be a very fruitful field for research; but only if one avoids becoming lost in the subject and retains consistently a wider perspective. The same can be said of national history, no matter how great the nation. In fact in the world of the airplane and the atomic bomb national history is local history.

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Finally, if the study of history is to prepare Americans for living in the world of today, that study must not be wholly confined to the history of the United States. We must know our own history if we are to understand our country and deal adequately with its problems. But many aspects of our history can be fully understood only in the perspective of world history, and many of our problems cannot be solved without reference to other peoples. The American Revolution was part of a world war in which four European countries were involved; the development of American industry has often been affected by events which took place abroad. If we know only our own history we are apt to exaggerate both our achievements and our failures. Such exaggerated ideas of superiority and inferiority (the two can exist simultaneously) easily lead a people astray, and such ideas can best be checked by a study of world history. It is also true that Americans have not yet had all the experience of other peoples, and that certain ideas and forms of social organization which may affect our country in the future can be studied at present only by going beyond the limits of the United States. For these reasons it seems clear that the intensive study of American history should be supplemented by a survey of the history of the more important foreign countries (Edgar B. Wesley, Director, *American History in Schools and Colleges*. New York: Macmillan, 1944. P. 22).

# Myths and the Social Studies

Leah Woods Wilkins

THE disappearance of myths from the materials of the elementary schools is indicative of shocking short-sightedness. In recent years education has emphasized science, the "scientific attitude," and the understanding of the world in which we live. The child's actual experiences are the starting point for enlarging his horizon. This is sound educational practice. However, we have become so engrossed with practical learning experience that we have forgotten the importance of widening the scope of wholesome imagination. We are making a serious error in abandoning the use of myths in literature and the social studies.

One objective of the social studies is to give the child a sense of historical direction. How can he see where he is going if he knows not from whence he came? Another objective is to give the child a sense of responsibility for today and the future. But insight into the future is predicated upon understanding of the past. The social studies aim to develop the ability to interpret facts, to reason on the basis of evidence. Opportunities for this should be presented in areas that are new, fresh, different from the centers of interest that have been explored over and over in grade after grade. Areas that challenge a child's mind will stimulate his thinking. A child's mind is hungry for new experiences. His imagination transforms vicarious experiences into a part of his inner self—often a more important part than the outer self that goes through the motions of firsthand experiences. This we have forgotten.

THE early myths of the Greeks and Norsemen stimulate the child's healthy imagination with stories that have proven perennially fascinating; they afford an interesting approach to the history and geography of Greece and Norway; they offer evidence of the solutions which primi-

tive peoples worked out as to the "whys" of nature, and they are a good starting point for developing an ability to reason. The social studies aim to show how man evolved. The evolution of his thinking is as important as the development of his means of transportation, or of obtaining food, clothing, and shelter. The myths provide evidence of how early man satisfied his wonder at, and fear of, forces in nature that awed or terrified him.

It has been demonstrated by Zeller and Thorndike that a basic characteristic of pre-adolescent children is hero worship and the love of adventure and excitement in reading. Myths satisfy these interests; at the same time they quicken and extend the child's sensitivity to nature. The earth and the elements and forces of nature remain the same regardless of changes in our material and social existence. They excite the same wonder and fancy in the mind of modern child that they did in the primitive mind long centuries ago. The fact that we teach the child scientific explanations of natural phenomena should follow rather than exclude the study of myths.

It was in recognition of child interests that mythology was recommended for the elementary grades by the Committee of Ten in 1892, by the Committee of Seven in 1899, and by Dr. John Schwarz in 1938, as well as by all experts in the field of children's literature—people who know the direction children's interests naturally take at certain ages.

In the study of myths, we start with the world of nature which the child knows, and we appeal to his own imagination. This provides far richer experiences for young children than does the repetitious review of thoroughly familiar elements in their daily lives. If we inquire into the ideas a child actually has, as did G. Stanley Hall,<sup>1</sup> we, too, shall find that the child sees pictures in clouds; thinks of the moon as a living thing; believes that the sun may singe the tree-tops or fall and set fire to the earth; that he

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A teacher in the Anne Beers School, one of the public elementary schools of Washington, D.C., urges the restoration of Greek and Norse myths in the social studies program of the elementary grades.

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<sup>1</sup> "The Contents of Children's Minds on Entering School," *Aspects of Child Life and Education* (New York: Appleton, 1921), pp. 31-36.



personifies trees, rocks, snowflakes, the wind, shadows, and nearly every aspect of nature that he knows. Many educators have stated that "the child makes a mythology of his own; that, furthermore, it does not hinder in any way the later acceptance of current scientific and religious views."<sup>2</sup>

As teachers of social studies our interest in myths is exactly like our interest in other folk-products. From them the child learns about the social life of the people, their daily and seasonal occupations, the kinds of animals they had domesticated, their means of travel, their weapons and other means of protection, the customs and character of the people, the ideals and virtues they admired, their fears and hopes, the forces in nature that frightened them, or that appealed to their sense of beauty and grandeur, and the mysteries of life and death that every people have tried to explain. These are the things that children want to know about. As they read, intensely interested in the action of the story, they learn while being unaware of learning.

The teacher, of course, must take certain precautions. The children must understand that:

myths, legends and traditions are not history. They are not true although they may be the vehicle for carrying truth. In the use of any of these, the teacher and the pupil should be aware of their real nature, and it should be known that they have grown up about certain characters or incidents in early history, or around certain beliefs, the exact truth or foundation for which have been lost forever. But they do reveal something of the nature and characteristics of the people from whom they have come down.<sup>3</sup>

#### THE GREEK MYTHS

LET us examine the Greek myths. They give us evidence of how the ancient Greeks were affected by the hot, dry summers; the cold, wet winters; the majestic, snow-covered mountains; and by the vast expanse of restless over-active ocean. The Greeks thought that the gods who ruled over these mighty forces of nature dwelt on the mysterious summit of Mt. Olympus. It was their god of gods, Zeus, who sent the heavenly blessing of rain to the land surfeited with sunshine. He controlled the terrifying thunderbolts and shafts of lightning, symbols of his omnipotence. The distant volcanoes with their flashes of flame were the forges of the smithy of the gods, Hephaestus.

<sup>2</sup> Ezra Allen, "The Pedagogy of Myths in the Grades," *Pedagogical Seminary*, VIII, No. 2 (June, 1901), 258.

<sup>3</sup> John Schwarz, *Social Studies in the Elementary School* (New York: Prentice Hall, 1938), p. 37.

The earth was the home of a thousand lesser deities. In that land of scanty rainfall, the marvel of a flooded river, a perpetually flowing stream, or a woodland spring was explained by the myth of Arethusa or Acis. Each body of water was the dwelling place of a nymph or sprite. Reverberations from the deep ravines were explained by the fate of the impudent nymph, Echo. Her sad ending was in keeping with the plaintive voice returning from the hills. Their belief that each tree had its living spirit was probably a primitive effort toward forest conservation. Earthquakes were caused, they thought, by tidal waves sent by the angry god of the sea, Poseidon. The rare qualities of particular flowers were accounted for by the myths of Adonis (the anemone), Narcissus, Clytie (the sunflower), and Hyacinthus. The wonder of dewdrops at dawn, and the eternal freshness of the laurel, used as a prize in Olympic games honoring Apollo, were accounted for in the myths of Aurora and Memnon, and of Daphne and Apollo. The exquisite rainbow was the goddess, Iris.

So the roll of gods and goddesses may be called, each representing some characteristic of the life or environment or thought of the early Greeks. The qualities of personality and of physical being which they most admired, and which are still admired today, are given new meaning by the study of their mythology. They also expose the secret motives and impulses that determine human action. Pandora, Midas, Phaeton, Arachne, Echo—all had character traits disapproved no less by modern society than by the ancient Greeks. Baucis and Philemon, Theseus, Perseus, and Hercules all had desirable characteristics. A child of eight or nine can understand these qualities; and in making connections between the story and the geographic or historic facts it attempts to explain, or in drawing conclusions as to the benefits of a hero's deeds to his nation, the child learns to reason.

Everywhere the child looks there are references to Greek mythology. Architecture of public buildings is copied from Greek temples; their exterior decoration is derived from the Greeks. On any trip to an art gallery or museum, the child sees that among the most valued treasures are paintings, sculpture, pottery, and tapestries depicting characters or episodes from Greek mythology. Appreciation of these things is based on understanding their significance. Are we to take children on trips, only to have them gaze as those whose "eyes are holden"?

## MYTHS OF NORWAY

NORSE mythology is the second great body of literature which is useful in the social studies. Norway is one of the most interesting regions for geographic study. It furnishes an example of man's adaptation to a cold, mountainous seacoast. The influence of the damp, cold climate and the forested mountains on the customs, beliefs, and seasonal habits of the people is clearly perceived. The story of the Norsemen intermingles with the history of medieval Europe and the discovery of America. Children thrill to the true story of Viking voyages across the Atlantic in the tiny dragon ships. The daring raids of the Norsemen extended to all European coasts, and far into the Mediterranean. Vestiges of Norse mythology remain in our Wotansday, Thorsday, and Friggasday.

The direct connection between the facts that the early people tried to explain and the tales they told may not be as clear as in the old Greek stories, but we can see in them the influence of an environment that required of its inhabitants the greatest fortitude and courage. The vastness of their concepts and the magnitude of the trials and accomplishments in these stories are a natural outgrowth of the thinking of the people in such a formidable country.

The Norse were surrounded by a grandiose nature. Life was a constant battle against the overpowering elements of deathly cold, freezing winds, vast avalanches, and glaciers that carried impassive destruction in their glittering expanses. Life was a tremendous fight to them, hence their gods were men of heroic size and spirit. The Vikings wanted to acquit themselves like men; enduring hardships without repining, doing hard work honestly and with a whole heart, and dying with their faces toward their foes, since their heaven was a place for heroes.

The effect of the Arctic night and weather on their thinking can be judged by the fact that evil and ugly things in their mythology are related to cold and darkness. The Norse gods are continuously on guard against the Frost Giants; Hell, or Niffleheim, is a place of freezing blackness, not of fire and flames as in the mythology of southern peoples. How winter was pushed back is the subject of one of the myths. Their version of the end of the world shows their fear that summer and sunshine will never return to their land: the "twilight of the gods" would be preceded by, first,

a triple winter, during which snow will fall from the four corners of the heavens, the frost be very severe, the wind piercing, the weather tempestuous, and the sun impart no gladness. Three such winters will pass away without being tempered by a single summer. Three other similar winters will then follow, during which war and discord will spread over the universe.<sup>4</sup>

## VALUES FROM THE STUDY OF MYTHOLOGY

THUS mythology brings children into contact with ideas that have occupied men's minds since the dawn of intelligence and communication. Socially approved character traits are inherent in the stories. The child's imagination is stimulated and large areas of experiences are made meaningful. Myths vitalize the study of regional geography as a textbook cannot do. They supply the study of early man with interesting and fruitful evidence of historical significance, with an almost firsthand insight into the fettered mind of primitive man. They provide a stimulus to reading the best literature. The never-to-be-forgotten interest in mythology enables a high school or college student to read many of the works of literature without being completely bewildered by classical allusions. The myths provide evidence for reasoning; they give the child opportunity to see and make connections between cause and effect, an ability which is fundamental to independent thinking. Myths form an interesting approach to, and background for, nature study and science. The child's interest is heightened by an appreciation of the advances man has made in explaining natural phenomena; by his realization of the freedom from fear which science has brought about.

Child nature does not change, in spite of the latest fashions in adult ideas about its needs. The urban child may not have as great a sensitivity to nature as the country child has, but myths stimulate his responsiveness to trees, flowers, stars, and other elements of nature that are present but not prominent in a city. The writer's experience indicates that children who live in the city are avid for myths, read them eagerly and with absorption, and are enthusiastic in discussions and dramatizations of them. She has found that myths can effectively contribute to a child's ability to investigate facts, to try out solutions of problems, and to weigh and judge the results of actions.

<sup>4</sup> Thomas Bulfinch, *Mythology* (Garden City, New York: Garden City Publishing Co., 1938), p. 278.



# Foreign Affairs in the Atomic Age

Walker D. Wyman

ONE time a farmer had a good hired hand. At oats shocking time he could keep up with the binder alone. He could easily throw bales of hay farther into the barn than anybody else. But one time the farmer started him sorting potatoes. The large ones were to be placed in one corner, the small ones in another, the middle-sized ones in between. Returning much later, he found that very few potatoes had been sorted. The man sat there resembling Rodin's "Thinker." "What's the matter?" asked the farmer, "Is this work too hard for you? Why haven't you done more?" The hired man replied, "No, it ain't that the work's too hard. What drives me crazy is to have to make all these decisions."

And so it is in teaching foreign affairs today. The social scientist is constantly asked to pass judgment on our foreign policies, sorting the big from the little, and he often bogs down as did the farmer's hired hand.

It is our good and bad fortune today to be living on a world island, not so much in a geographic as in an ideological sense. This island now stands as a conservative bulwark of private property and political liberty against a world that moves toward collectivism. Bound by our traditions we look askance at the Orient where crumbling empires are being restored by force and where the forces of the right and left struggle for control of a future China. We blow hot and we blow cold on the modern tyrannies in the Argentine and in Spain. As we see the brave new world a-borning in Europe we do not know whether to feel happy or sad at this state of affairs. The most disturbing sight on the contemporary horizon, however, is the emergence of the socialist-totalitarian state, Russia, into the middle of the stream of world affairs.

This discussion of United States foreign policy for the postwar years was presented at the Milwaukee meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies. The author is professor of American history and government at the River Falls (Wisconsin) State Teachers College.

Foreign policy has as its purpose the achievement of the security and well-being of the nation-state. It is an adjunct of sovereignty. It does not always have as its purpose peace but it does have as its goal well-being. In a nation such as ours today its goal is not only peace for this nation but also the reconstruction of the world in a way most beneficial to us. Foreign policy in the atomic age is vastly more controversial, more filled with imponderables, than in any earlier age.

## BACKGROUNDS OF AMERICAN POLICY

IN THE first century of our existence it was not difficult to attain the goals of foreign policy. In America we had weak neighbors. In the Pacific there was nothing but feudal Japan, the undeveloped Siberian frontier of Russia, disorganized China, and the backward peoples of European colonial empires. No aggression could come from this side. The Atlantic was wide and even if it bordered the well-organized nation-states of Europe, it was a barrier to danger.

For many years the United States was a "suspect" nation, an island of popular government in a world generally not sympathetic with our ideals. Despite this fact, this vast sprawling hemisphere of the Americas was invaded only once—in Mexico. The teachers of American history generally explain this security by pointing to the Monroe Doctrine as the principal factor. Neglected too often are the all-important aspects of the peculiar distribution of power in Europe and the control of the Atlantic by England, a world power economically interested in American cotton and wheat and desirous of capturing the markets of rising Latin American states. Our error, surely, in teaching how we attained security in the last century is that of teaching American history from the viewpoint of an isolated nation and not one affected by the power system of Europe.

We grew to maturity as a nation neither understanding nor trusting the nation-state power system. Even the First World War contributed but little to our better understanding of it. What little we then learned we soon forgot



when we refused to pool our power with that of other states in the League of Nations. Thus positive harm came from our lack of understanding. While we knew we were a major power economically, and knew that the world of the Western democracies was our world, our statesmen, because of our history and because of the stumbling block of war debts, could make no permanent commitments even to our former Allies. However, in the Orient we could and did commit the nation to the protection of both the Philippines and China.

#### THE BIG THREE DIVERGE

THE Second World War seems to have cleared the air somewhat, though possibly the future may reveal that real understanding has not come even now. It is true that at San Francisco a beginning was made in the collectivization of power, but it must not be forgotten that the use of that power is subject to the whims of any one major state. Since insecurity can only come to the world through the action of a major state, it is difficult to see how one can conclude that the nation-state power system has been greatly modified. One can teach that this nation for the first time has joined an international organization, but one must hasten to add that the international constitution places little restriction on the foreign policy of this nation or any other. In this respect the United Nations are not as far advanced as were our Thirteen States under the Articles of Confederation.

It is already clear that the victorious nations have very different foreign policies for the post-war period. Russia has special interests in central Europe, Britain in her "life-line," the United States in Latin America and in the Pacific. All base their policies on security. Yet, as in occupied Germany and in occupied Japan, separate national policies bring conflicts that threaten all security.

Certainly the present foreign policies of the Big Three are not those of nations that believe a reign of law and order is at hand. They reflect too much distrust. There is no thought of disarmament now. Even France, a has-been world power, is busily creating a large land army and trying to hold on to a slipping empire. The United States is demobilizing its vast forces under a terrific pressure from the home front but is holding on to its great fleet, is still manufacturing atomic bombs, and is talking of training a citizen's army. Russia continues military conscrip-

tion, is no doubt carrying on great experiments in new weapons, and apparently will remain a great military power.

These policies are followed after the enemy has been crushed and is not likely to rise for a generation. If the nations of the world know that insecurity has been destroyed by the defeat of the enemy they do not show it. If they know that security has been abolished by the development of atomic bombs they do not show that either. Historic distrust does not explain this phenomenon, but distrust of the future British-American world by the Russian world, and vice versa, does throw some light on present actions.

#### CHOICES FOR THE FUTURE

IF AMERICAN security was born out of the power system that caused France to aid us in the American Revolution, if it was assured for us in the nineteenth century by the fortuitous circumstances of power in Europe and by the solid facts of geography, if a major part of the responsibility in that power system came home to rest with us as a result of the Second World War, and if we possess the "know-how" on the manufacture of the atomic bomb, then why do we have this great doubt about the future?

It is probable that the policies forged for the reconstruction of the world will generally succeed: that is, the non-Nazi, non-fascist, non-military, non-aggressive peoples of the world will come into control of the governments of the conquered countries and a degree of industrial demobilization will be attained. Europe will grope toward the left, but probably will not go communist even in the Russian sphere of influence. A greater degree of independence will come to the Indonesians and others, unilaterally or through joint action. Even in China where conditions are likely to get worse before they get better and where American policy looms largest in the attention of the public, our historic policy of aiding in the creation of a united China will probably succeed.

Despite the probability that our reconstruction policies will generally succeed and the new world will be something of our own making, despite the existence of the beginnings of an organized power pool known as the United Nations, despite the fact that power today is in no small sense atomic energy and that is our national possession—despite these facts our security in the world is no longer taken for granted. We may teach that an international order founded on law has been

created, but everywhere among the adult citizenry there is talk of war with Russia. Moreover the armament race is again on, and soon we may know, or may assume to know, that the Big Three have sufficient bombs to blow each other's cities to pieces.

The test of American and world statesmanship in this generation is how to surrender control over this new weapon to something that will not threaten our existence. Unfortunately, wars breed and intensify nationalism. This war has been no exception. As the American people contemplate the record and see how close we came to losing our independence (for instance, how different our world might have been had England gone down or had Germany developed the atomic bomb before we invaded Europe), we insist on greater security, distrust the whole world more, and say to ourselves "Never again will we let down our guard." It is this people who talk of holding the secret or of outlawing by treaty the atomic bomb. It is this people who for the first time in our history have within ourselves the opportunity of making a decision that may determine our very existence in the future.

THE alternatives are several. We can prepare for a war now on the assumption that Russia is the enemy. We can keep the secret of manufacture in the family, that is, among the British and Canadians and possibly other Western friends. Or we can do as recommended by Harold Stassen, who proposes the creation of a new layer of world government having an air force and a supply of bombs sufficient to destroy any nation disturbing the peace, even our own. There is some reason to believe that our foreign policy is groping toward such a policy as Stassen proposes but it is not one that can come soon.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>This article went to press as the agreements of the "Big Three" at Moscow were announced. EDITOR.

Peace in our time will be dependent upon the growth of understanding and the decrease of distrust between us and the Russian colossus. On the whole these relations are now pretty sound. There are no conflicts in the areas of vital interests. At no place are our historic foreign policies, such as non-interference in the Americas, now challenged. Even in the vacuum of China, Russia is taking cues from us. In the security zones of Europe there is only minor bickering. On the future of Germany, there is a necessity for more than the present Potsdam agreement. The last great difference, the ideological one, is probably less important than many consider it to be. Such differences do not cause wars. Besides, Russian state-socialism is on the defensive for the first time since it was firmly established.

When the war was over Russia threw her weight around Europe in a disconcerting way. Now she has become as unwelcome in eastern and central Europe as liberators have usually been after the ejection of oppressors. Not only that, but Russian communists have had their eyes opened. Instead of finding the workers of the capitalistic world exploited, they found them, as in Vienna, living in apartments with indoor plumbing and other bourgeois comforts, or, when they met the fantastic Americans, they found them wearing wrist watches.

Russia's policy in central Europe is today as uncertain as ours. It is this Russia that must be understood and dealt with patiently by the American citizen. We serve no good purpose in adding to the fires of distrust by surface and careless teaching of current affairs. Certainly, we must hope that there is time for us to create in the schools sufficient critical thought and understanding to arrest the unhappy growth of the ill-will now in existence. We can only hope there is time to live up to our obligation, for in the atomic age teachers, unlike doctors, may not live to bury their mistakes.

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There has been an increasing awareness in the United States of the magnitude of the problems of the western Pacific. This vast quarter of the globe has within it, linked together by the Pacific Ocean and its adjacent Japanese, Yellow, and South China Seas, more than one-third of the population of the world and in uneven locations, a large portion of the natural resources and raw-material sources of the globe.

... each of the major powers of the world have very active interests in this part of the globe, and ... the problems of the area, historically, currently, and prophetically, are among the most difficult and acute. ...

There is a very real need of an early crystallization of the long-range policy of the United States in this area. To do this requires the earnest attention and study of many elements of our government and of our citizenry (Harold S. Stassen, "Our Over-all Responsibility in the Pacific." Delivered in New York City, October 29, 1945).

# Is the Issue Compulsory Military Training?

William H. Fisher

THE danger involved in debating the merits of the proposal for compulsory peacetime military training is that emotional reactions will obscure problems of deeper significance than the immediate issue. The request of the national administration for this program of military service is more a manifestation of an incorrect governmental policy than it is, of itself, an incorrect policy.

When President Truman made his dramatic appeal to Congress urging the passage of this piece of legislation, he was in essence admitting that he was distrustful that peace in the world might be preserved through the medium of conciliation. This apparent lack of faith in the possibilities of international diplomacy must confront educators with reactions that are sobering. President Truman's attitude relative to this question will result in his being subjected to vigorous criticism from a number of educators. It is well to keep in mind that no President can impose upon the people a policy which has arrayed against it a majority conscious of its cause. Unless they are themselves a party to such thinking, the people will force the rejection of any piece of important legislation which stems from illogical thinking.

This is the challenge to education. We might well ask ourselves as educators, what has been our outlook on the problem of how we may outlaw war? To an extent, it is undeniable that the program of the schools reflects itself in the thinking of the American people. Have we consciously fostered a type of learning which leads students to the conclusion that it is possible to have enduring peace?

It is imperative that this question be faced. No less an authority than Albert Einstein has said that he considers it possible that the next

war of atomic bombs, if there is one, will wipe from the face of the earth two thirds of the world's population. We must, therefore, face the fact that the word "peace" has no practical meaning if by it we mean simply the cessation of hostilities. For the schools this means a reorientation of the curriculum from a position of discussing whether we can have peace, to an emphasis upon the necessity of permanently eliminating war from the world.

TO THOSE who understand the implications of atomic warfare, the foregoing statements are not only obvious but platitudinous. But, in truth, if these thoughts are to be woven into the reality of educational experience, it is impossible to voice them too frequently. It is only from a profound consciousness of the great crisis which faces humanity that there can be built an education for Americans which is suited to the modern era. The question is: What can we, as teachers, do about it?

(1) We can call to the attention of our students, our colleagues, and other citizens that there is a danger that foreign policy of the national administration will become a "war policy." It is time that again and again it be stressed that it is inconsistent for governmental leaders to talk of peace when their policies add up to nothing less than preparation for war.

Compulsory peacetime military training is a part of these preparations, but by no means does it constitute the whole program. The writer had the rare privilege of witnessing the elaborate Navy Day celebration in New York City. The display of armed might was stirring and magnificent. The navy men who made possible our victory in the war deserved this tribute. But one could not help feeling that underlying this vast Roman holiday lay a policy of reliance upon force as the chief means of forwarding the influence of the United States in world affairs.

(2) We can and should emphasize that war is no longer a general, academic question. When a

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A teacher of social studies in the Fieldston School, New York City, vigorously states his case against compulsory peacetime military training.

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nation prepares for war, it is preparing to fight some one nation or group of nations. Thus, it is pertinent to ask: We are getting ready for a war with whom? It is not difficult to find the answer to this question. We are helping lay the groundwork for a war with Soviet Russia. It can be asked, "And what constitutes the proof of this assertion?" There is no "proof." But the circumstantial evidence is overwhelming.

Let us subject the question to examination. Do we have anything to fear from the defeated, occupied nations? If our influence there is used in the application of principles which lead to the growth of democracy in those lands, then from them we have nothing to fear. It is granted that this occupation puzzle is no easy one to fit together, but an enlightened program can succeed.

Are we preparing to fight England, China, France? It is doubtful. Then, whom are we going to fight? The implication is clear that our government thinks it altogether possible that we will have to fight Soviet Russia. If, in the final analysis, we insist that it is a good idea to be prepared for any eventuality, are we not admitting, as our administration has apparently admitted, that we lack faith in the ability of our nation to help achieve peace through diplomatic procedures and through the assumption by us of moral leadership?

(3) If we want to avoid the virtual suicide of much of the human race, we had better teach and teach fast for an understanding of the Russian people and their government. Most of the Russians believe in their social system. Some will say that that is because they have known no other systems, or cannot express opposition to the one which they have. There may be a kernel of truth in this supposition, but if we consider the great contributions of the Russian people in turning back and defeating the Nazi hordes, we must grant in all humility that much of their sacrifice stemmed from a profound devotion to their government and its cause.

It is plain that we are not going to bring about any radical change in the soviet system by constantly pointing out to our students and to others what we consider to be the weaknesses in the way in which life is lived in the land of the soviets. Then let us grant the possibility that there are elements in the modern Russian state which in their nobleness are worthy of our study.

When we consider what the Russians have accomplished in the realm of relations among racial and national groups, in their emphasis

upon material security as the basis of human dignity, and in their social and economic planning which has been designed to raise the standard of living of the people, we can find much in Russian life that is worth our serious attention.

If we are to understand the Russian people and their state, modern developments must be examined in the light of what these people have experienced in the past. What was their lot in life under the Czar? It should be clear that the great practical triumph of the Marxian dialectic in no small part sprang from the desire of the people to throw off the yoke of czarist tyranny. Frequently in history, one extreme has bred another. Does this not account for the methods of direct action which have characterized internal developments in the Soviet Union? It is important that in considering our relations with the Soviet Union, we as teachers remain conscious of the value in the historical approach.

If we believe the Russian state to be unduly suspicious of the Western democracies, let us remember that these democracies exercised their great power in behalf of the counter-revolutionary movement which was active in Russia during the period of the civil war. And let us keep in mind that the Russian government was the first to propose collective security as a means of stopping Hitler. This was at a time when our foreign policy as exemplified, for example, during the war in Spain, could only serve to help build the power and might of the Hitlerites.

(4) Those of us who believe in peace will use considerable energy in an effort to defeat any legislation which is designed to fasten a system of compulsory military training on the youth of the land. Even though the administration's proposal is more a symptom of incorrect policies than it is a cause of them, we can help bring about a reorientation in the thinking of our national leaders by defeating this measure. We can aid in the generating of a program which places primary emphasis upon diplomatic procedures rather than the threat of armed might.

We cannot afford to assume a narrow approach to the issue. We should help promote rather than retard steps which facilitate our active participation in the United Nations Organization. Written into the Charter of the U.N.O. is the principle of collective security founded on the possible use of military measures. The effective application of this principle will demand that the major nations, in particular, have military forces available at all times. However, for us to meet our responsi-

bilities under the Charter, it will be unnecessary for us to create the kind of a military machine which have been envisioned by those who have advocated compulsory service in a peacetime army.

**A**T THIS point, we can and should mobilize all the arguments which were previously used by educators in helping defeat a similar bill for involuntary military service. If those arguments were valid before, today they carry one thousand times the weight. We can win new converts to the cause. The prospective horrors of all-out atomic warfare have awakened thousands

of Americans to the grave dangers involved in any step which leads us closer to war.

Let us not lose sight of the fact that even though it is important to defeat any plan of military conscription, the great responsibility which lies upon us is to help mold the public mind toward a new orientation, one which considers world peace as a probability. We can make of this probability a reality if we can educate enough people to understand that a people armed with the facts can, in this democracy, bring about the application of a governmental policy which is enlightened at both the foreign and domestic levels.

### Editor's Page

(Continued from page 54)

of environment works against the school. It has no grasp of the problem of teaching those who can not read with facility and have no interest in reading in the fields of general education, and who have no aptitude for dealing with ideas. These are not necessarily "dumb"; most are quite capable of becoming "a good man, a good citizen, and a useful man," but they do differ from those who can benefit from the sort of program advanced by the Report in what they can learn and in how they can learn it.

The Report proposes that "general education in . . . three areas should form a continuing core for all," and rejects "waterings-down of hard courses, for the less able." The "waterings-down" have certainly proved to be no adequate answer—but neither has demanding that students achieve what they can not.

The Committee, which has a clear idea of what it would like education to accomplish, and a reasonable program for achieving its ends for those who are both willing to accept those ends and capable of learning in traditional ways, thus fails to allow for that considerable body of youth that is apathetic or hostile to general education as framed by the Committee, and quite incapable of learning by the methods and experiences with which the Committee is familiar and which it considers to be educationally respectable.

The out-of-school influences on many boys and girls are now bad, and make for bad citizenship. Student government and extracurricular activities have no appreciable citizenship value for those who can not or will not or are not allowed to participate in them. The classics of literature or of political and social thought have no meaning for thousands of young people whose tastes

have been formed—or deformed, if we will—by radio programs, movies, and comics that are far from classical in their inspiration. Nor is the influence of these forms of entertainment on the taste of those who come from favored homes and who are intellectually superior to be ignored.

In at least two respects the flexibility repeatedly recommended by the Harvard Report needs to be stretched farther than the Committee seems to have contemplated. First, for many youth education needs to start with immediate and urgent needs of youth—health, provision for a wholesome environment, security, individual adjustment—rather than with three areas of knowledge; otherwise the three areas are not likely ever to have much meaning or value to the individuals concerned. Second, both the selection from those areas of knowledge and the choice of media and experiences through which the knowledge is to be taught must be made with greater allowance for the capabilities and the limitations of those who are to learn—particularly so in the case of those who have limited ability to learn from books.

The Committee, though it claims "neither completeness nor originality," has illuminated the nature of general education and its relation to special education. It has dealt carefully, broadly, and intelligently with the school and college programs of those who desire general or special education, or both. But many school administrators and classroom teachers, as convinced as the Committee about the values of general education, will not believe that those values can be realized for *all* American youth by the program advanced in the Harvard Report.

ERLING M. HUNT



# Intercultural Aspects of Latin American Studies

Paul W. Coons

**B**ASIC to the building of a friendly attitude on the part of the people of this country toward Latin America is the correction of the commonly held view that we of the North and they of the South represent incompatible traditions and views of life. A high school course or unit of study should speedily convince all but the willfully prejudiced that all the Americas have much in common. They and we look to Europe for the origin of language, religion, laws, customs, and ideas of government. Immigration has been the mainspring of population for both continents. Both the United States and the Latin American countries won independence from European motherlands by armed rebellions. Both have consistently proclaimed ideals of personal liberty and republican government. The common interest in shielding the new world against old world imperialisms and, of late, in promoting international cooperation has been in the foreground. Both areas face common problems arising from industrialization. Both have moved in recent decades toward national policies looking to the winning of greater security for the common man.

At the same time students may arrive at an understanding of the differences which, in the opinion of so many North Americans, justify the conclusion that Latin Americans are "inferior" people and of minor consequences in world affairs. As the contrasts between life in the United States and life in Latin American countries are explored, the student learns of the differences in national origins, in political and economic development, and in predominant religious and

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The study of Latin America in the secondary schools of the United States can modify not only attitudes toward Latin Americans but understanding of intercultural problems in our own country. Such is the thesis of a paper prepared at the Harvard Social Studies Workshop by a social studies teacher in Berkeley High School, Hartford, Connecticut.

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social views and institutions. The great difference in average living standards between Anglo and Latin America will be examined. When it is understood that the peon has been exploited, denied educational opportunity, and nourished on a miserable diet, the charge of constitutional laziness gives way to speculation as to the improvements that might result from a chance to earn a decent wage, to attend good schools, and to eat good food.

South American revolutions and dictatorships, so disturbing to North Americans accustomed to living in a relatively stable political democracy, will not be overlooked. Perhaps the common notion that fiery Latin temperaments or sheer incapacity for self-government explain the political troubles of the lands to the south may undergo a change in the presence of knowledge about the conditions giving rise to the caudillos and about the recent noteworthy progress toward stability and democratic processes.

Understanding that "inferiority" may be nothing more than differences resulting from historical evolution is the least that may be hoped for; of equal importance is awareness of the tendency of most people to label as "inferior" persons and ideas with which they do not agree. Such understandings pave the highway to respect.

## SPECIFIC MISCONCEPTIONS

**O**NE of the most wholesome results of a study of Latin America should be an insight into the origin of the Black Legend in imperialistic and religious prejudice of sixteenth-century England. Widely though often unconsciously held, this prejudice has operated for more than three centuries to provide Anglo-Americans with an assumption of the inferior character of the Spanish, Portuguese, and Latin American peoples; our inherent superiority has been taken for granted. People who should have known better, including textbook writers, have shared in perpetuating the notion.

What better way is there to dispose of the



falsehood than by confronting high school students with the facts that show Spain's imperial policies, her treatment of the Indians, and the character of her leaders to have been, like those of England and France, in some respects wise and generous, in other respects blundering and cruel? Further, the force of the Black Legend may be lessened, if not altogether dissipated, by reference to the achievements of Latin Americans in industrialization, in humanitarian legislation, and in art, literature, and music. No greater service can be rendered the cause of mutual respect among the peoples of this hemisphere.

Teachers of Latin American studies are in position to build friendly attitudes simply by exposing students to facts which correct most of the illusions and delusions still in wide circulation. Examples can be added to those already discussed. The thought is easily grasped that, inasmuch as each of the twenty Latin American republics has a national culture, it is a questionable use of the term to speak of a Latin American culture. The notion that there are few or no good schools in Latin America disappears in the light of knowledge about the famous universities, such as those of Mexico City and Lima, whose history antedates the oldest university in the United States by a century. Knowledge of educational advances of recent decades will further contribute to a just estimate of the Latin American's capacity for modernizing his educational systems.

It takes only a glance at a library shelf of books by Latin Americans in English translation to remove the impression that no consequential literature has come out of the new world south of the Rio Grande. Students who share the belief that only a negligible part of South America is fit for human habitation need only look at a wall map. The best secondary school textbooks on Latin America abound in illustrations refuting the Hollywood-accented stereotype which pictures the Latin American male as a masterful lover wooing a captivating beauty, or the equally absurd stereotype which conceives of all Latin Americans as drowsy agricultural laborers.

**A** FAR more serious notion, entertained by many tourists, that United States money can buy everything, lends itself to correction when the student learns of Mexican and other national repudiations of foreign control of resources and industries. In the same manner, familiarity with Latin American diplomatic viewpoints and knowledge that Latin Americans have made significant contributions to inter-American

and world relations is an effective antidote to the common belief that Latin America has been of minor account in international affairs. No one can confront the doctrine that no international debt may be collected by force, which originated with Luis Drago of Argentina, or the development of concepts of international cooperation, to which Mello Franco of Brazil and Ezequiel Padilla of Mexico—to mention only two—have contributed so much, without growing appreciation of the fact that the history of international relations would have been considerably less fruitful if Latin Americans had not made their contributions.

No great pedagogical skill or profound study is necessary to abolish most of the common misconceptions—only exposure to the facts is needed. The task, however, becomes more difficult when the misconceptions involve criteria of moral or social values. For example, an approach to the study of Latin America with the conviction that we have a duty to convert the Latin Americans to our way of thinking and living will hardly promote friendly feelings on our part toward them, and certainly not on their part toward us. The student must be led to understand that the culture of the Mexican, the Chilean, or the Argentinian may be cherished by him with a pride equal to that with which a citizen of Texas, or Virginia, or of Vermont views his native land. Moreover, the student may profitably learn that our abandonment of the "melting pot" concept in favor of cultural democracy embracing diversity in unity nullifies any moral right to approach other peoples of the western hemisphere with an assumption that any culture at variance with ours is, per se, less admirable.

Someone may ask, "Will the Latin Americans do their part in correcting fantastic, damaging misconceptions about Anglo American ways of life; if they don't, will our efforts be of much avail?" The question, however significant, can hardly be discussed here. It may, however, be noted in passing that the importance of developing correct views of North American civilization is not unappreciated by Latin American intellectuals.<sup>1</sup>

#### RELATED NATIONAL PROBLEMS

**T**HE things said thus far are fairly well appreciated by those who have given thought to

<sup>1</sup> Luis Quintanilla, *A Latin American Speaks* (New York: Macmillan, 1943) contains an amusing and highly stimulating discussion of absurd ideas current throughout Latin America regarding the United States.

inter-American cultural relations. Less clearly perceived are the facts that Latin American studies offer rich possibilities for the illumination of the character of our national, racial, and other intergroup relations, and that in our attack on group prejudices, North Americans may have something of value to learn from the attitudes developed in Latin American lands.

One of the specific services that the study of Latin America can render is the development of an understanding of the part played by Spanish-speaking groups in the United States. Mainly of Mexican origins, either by immigration or by parentage, these now number nearly 2,000,000 and are concentrated largely in the five states of Texas, California, New Mexico, Arizona, and Colorado. A sprinkling of the descendants of the early Spanish settlers form part of this minority.

Settlement by Mexicans in the United States has been going on from the invasion of De Soto to the migration of workers during World War II. Their history has been distinguished by tenacity to their native tongue and traditions; a vast majority are in the lowest economic class; they have been consistently exploited and discriminated against. Anglo-Americans have appropriated their architecture, music, and painting—as well as their labor—for the enrichment of life in the United States. At the same time, few persons in our country have been concerned, or even informed, about the consignment of this depressed minority to social, economic, political, and educational subordination.

The secondary school study of Latin America might well focus attention upon the Latin Americans within our borders, with particular emphasis upon the fact that our protestations of cordiality toward the other Americans are likely to be evaluated with reference to our treatment of their nationals. It is furthermore conceivable that not only the Spanish-speaking groups but other minorities—notably the Indians and the Negroes—may be seen as meriting more democratic treatment if the study succeeds in developing a respect for the inherent dignity and worth of the Latin American, wherever he may be found.

**I**N A broader sense, Latin American studies may contribute to a sane approach to intergroup relations by making students aware of the international scope of the problems. One cannot study Latin America without being struck by the fact that our intergroup tensions, which intercultural education seeks to relieve, have their counterparts in the lands to the south. Common

to all the Americas is the effort to assimilate into the social structure large numbers of people born in Europe or in Asia and resistant to integration. An abiding perplexity with us has been our relations with the Indian minority; our record should humble if not humiliate us as we consider what small vision and cruel ineptitude has often marked the treatment of the first Americans. In most Latin American countries an Indian population which in size and influence dwarfs ours to insignificance presents a constant challenge to white leadership.

Religious intolerance has blackened the histories of both Anglo- and Latin America, with Protestants mainly responsible in the United States and Roman Catholics in the lands conquered by the sword and cross from Spain. How to reconcile professions of democracy with prejudice against the Negro and its accompanying social and political inequality is a matter of concern throughout the hemisphere to those interested in human decency. Likewise, the workers for democracy in both the United States and the Latin American countries are embarrassed by widespread indifference to the plight of the lower third, or the lower half, or whatever the proportion may be, of the people whose poverty stands in painful contrast to the wealth of the upper classes.

All the Americas have experienced the curse of class antagonisms and of national, religious, and racial prides and prejudices. However safely our fathers shunted aside the responsibility of dealing with the unpleasant facts, now the mere instinct of self-preservation makes it a cultural imperative to begin a democratic solution of these problems. One of the obvious ways to begin is by recognizing their existence on a hemispheric scale.

**C**AN it be that Latin American attitudes toward majority-minority relationships may be of some value in suggesting approaches to the problems in our country? Many citizens of the United States would view such an idea as naive or even preposterous. The person, however, who has climbed down from his perch of patronizing condescension toward the Latin American will confront questions certain to give him pause. How is it that the Mexican Indian looks to the future with considerably more hope than our Southern tenant farmer, although assuredly with no more money in his pocket? What explains the relatively cordial relations between white and black races in Brazil? Is it possible that little



Uruguay, with its code of social legislation enacted decades prior to the New Deal, can teach the mighty nation of the northern continent something about establishing security and equality of opportunity?

No one can reasonably expect a high school study of Latin America to plumb the depths of these and related questions, but it is difficult to see how a student could confront them without wondering whether the United States might not learn much about human relations from Latin American experimentation. Neither would anyone propose that Latin American answers fit all, or even any, situations in the United States. But the social studies student, if conditioned by a well-planned course of study and by intelligent, interculturally alert teaching, will sense the possibilities in other approaches beside those conceived in the United States.

Probably the most important way by which a course or unit on Latin America may further understanding of our domestic intergroup relations is by the enlargement of perspective with reference to the world's "majority" and "minority" groups. An ethnically oriented study of Latin America will interpret and underline the fact that the "minority" racial groups of the United States are the "majority" groups not only of Latin America but of the world. A lucid and concrete corrective will thus have been administered to a serious error in the thinking of many people of our country, namely, that the white race holds overwhelming predominance of numbers as well as of power through the Western Hemisphere.

The simple facts, of course, are that only three countries of Latin America—Argentina, Uruguay, and Costa Rica—are predominantly white and that people of variously shaded skins—the Negroes, the Indians, the Mestizos, and the Mulattoes—are in a 51 per cent to 90 per cent majority in all the other Latin American lands. Here is a sobering reminder that the 12,000,000 Negroes

in the United States have more than the force of reason on their side in resenting discrimination at the hands of a white "majority." The high schools have in the study of Latin America an instrumentality to develop valid conceptions about the world's racial groups, than which nothing is more important if the future is to be possessed by people with rational, humane, and democratic principles.

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Deep-seated political, racial, religious, and economic controversies now prevent the attainment of international peace. These problems can be adjusted only under conditions of tolerance, fair play, and democracy. To develop these attitudes so that they function in international affairs is an important function of education. . . . The contributions of the various races and nations to civilization and culture, the sufferings and moral degradations brought about by war, and the superior value and importance of the arts of peace are subjects considered in many schoolrooms. All this is wholesome and should be extended (Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. Washington: National Education Association, 1938. P. 115).



# Democratic Character Education Through Student Social Experience

Catherine J. Robbins

TRAINING in social responsibility is a function of extracurricular activities as well as a part of the more formal educational program in the modern secondary school and college. The issues of the war and subsequent peace have brought out the urgent need for social education, but there needs to be greater integration of academic learning and democratic practice in the solution of social problems.

By directing the energy and spirit of youth into channels of social responsibility, today's school and college activities are making a contribution to the development of citizens who are competent to meet both the problems of a complex world society and those of local communities. According to Jacques Barzun, "If one looks at what goes on in college halls besides classes, it is clear that what is wanted is an outlet for the gregarious, the political, and the would-be-adult instincts of youth. This the American college provides better than any other institution in the world, with the possible exception of Oxford and Cambridge, and it is a merit, not a fault. I refer, of course, to the elaborate organization of extracurricular activities."<sup>1</sup> These extracurricular activities are a goad to social education.

UNLESS we have integration of classroom work and extracurricular activities, there is danger that students will form enlightened social viewpoints in their social studies without carrying out their convictions in campus practice. It is not enough for a young man or woman to form a tolerant attitude toward other races; he or she must be capable of living democratically with persons of those races in face-to-face social relationships. California students, seeing the return of the Nisei to campuses throughout the

state, have an opportunity to put their social-mindedness into practice as they work on committees, in voluntary services, and through student government with these young people of Japanese ancestry. Students in the Pasadena Junior College already are working cordially with Nisei in their student activities. Will we use this student laboratory adequately in teaching tolerance and world citizenship? Isaiah Bowman in a recent address at Stanford University referred frequently to the "world as one city."<sup>2</sup> Modern communication and air travel will bring the world to our college and secondary school campuses. Extracurricular social experience under the guidance of faculty and civic leaders will enable the members of the campus community to work together as "one city."

The Educational Policies Commission<sup>3</sup> defines a person's character as "his conduct in situations involving others," and comments that "his character is good to the degree that he consistently respects the rights of other persons and seeks their welfare as well as his own." What better means of character education can be found than extracurricular experience in working with others on the campus and in the community? A close relationship between the educational institution and the community gives students the benefit of the example of mature conduct and makes them sensitive to real social and ethical issues.

The participation of students in such community activities as the Red Cross, the various character building agencies, and projects for civic betterment provides the kinds of experiences which develop youth for democratic living and global citizenship. It is the task of the school, the family, and the community to work together in setting up an environment and activities to facili-

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The values of group work outside the classrooms of schools and colleges are reviewed by the dean of women at Pasadena Junior College.

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<sup>1</sup> Jacques Barzun, *Teacher in America* (Boston: Little, Brown, 1945).

<sup>2</sup> Isaiah Bowman, Stanford University Commencement Address, June 17, 1945.

<sup>3</sup> *Education for All American Youth* (Washington: Educational Policies Commission, 1944), p. 143.

tate this much needed kind of social experience.

L. Thomas Hopkins' statement, "To aid pupils better to learn subject matter, to develop skills, to become mentally, emotionally and socially mature, the school must improve the quality of human relationships which exist among all individuals directly in contact with the learning situations,"<sup>4</sup> emphasizes the need for activities in which teachers, pupils, and the community cooperate in the development of socially mature individuals. Character for democratic living cannot grow by chance or through academic study alone; it must be fostered by practice in social relationships on the campus and in the community. At the Pasadena Junior College, where the student government serves as a laboratory of democracy closely related to the department of social science, students and teachers are achieving a closer integration between social studies and social experience.

THE induction of youth into the responsibilities of adults calls for both the inculcation of certain values and the development of a sense of responsibility for the common good. The war service activities have given the schools an excellent opportunity to direct the altruistic instincts of youth into constructive channels. It remains to be seen whether we can continue to harness this student energy for the social welfare. Projects planned for the rehabilitation of children in occupied countries and for the adjustment of former military personnel in hospitals offer some opportunities for the growth of patterns of conduct for postwar living.

According to Margaret Mead, we need to let students participate in activities in terms of moral choices instead of following blind authority, and give them opportunities to act in terms of meaning rather than fear.<sup>5</sup> We also need to make provision for reflective thinking on student action. A type of student forum, in which a cross section of the student body participate in the discussion of campus activities and problems, is one means of leading students toward social concern. Such a forum also breaks down barriers between

social and political cliques on the campus. Known popularly on one junior college campus as "student activities forums," these informal discussion groups have covered a miscellany of problems from campus behavior to the social issues at the San Francisco United Nations Conference on International Organization. The forums can also provide a social occasion as well as a means of studying social problems.

Experience in social situations is one of the major factors in the growth of social competence and responsibility, and the modern educational program must provide opportunities for social relationships among faculty, students, and civic workers. Campus and community activities for students should be varied and flexible in accordance with the needs and interests of students. To replace the war-service activities, there will have to be new and meaningful pursuits such as projects for the welfare of minority groups, activities for the vocational and social adjustment of men and women war veterans, campus and community postwar planning on educational policies, and school and community study of employment problems and leisure time pursuits. College and secondary school social life is the responsibility of the home, the school, and the community. The cooperative activity of these agencies creates an awareness of social problems and it provides training in community living and participation.

STUDENTS cannot reach their maximum of contribution to society without experience in social situations and without individual social adjustment. It is essential that the school help bring about this personal adjustment of students if they are to function effectively in society. The able need opportunities for the assumption of social responsibility; the shy and maladjusted students must be sought out and given guidance and instruction in the techniques of social living.

Extracurricular activities help give students insight and understanding of their personal and social problems, and they provide opportunities for instruction in social techniques. Through relating these activities to areas of the curriculum, the modern college and secondary school give students the kinds of experiences that lead to personal maturity and the social competence necessary for democratic character and citizenship in local, national, and international society.

<sup>4</sup>L. Thomas Hopkins, "Atmosphere for Learning," *Teachers College Record*, XLVI:99-105, 101, November, 1944.

<sup>5</sup>Margaret Mead, "Administrative Contribution to Democratic Character Formation at the Adolescent Level," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, IV:51-57 (January, 1941).

# An Eighth Grade Studies Racial Intolerance

Jean Wagner

THE eighth grade in the Campus Junior High School, Western Washington College of Education, in Bellingham, spent a recent quarter in studying a unit on "Tolerance." The unit had its beginnings in the so-called "Japanese" problem of this coast. The Japanese problem is to many people of the Pacific Coast the most important current issue under discussion.

In order to understand and evaluate the emotional type of information that controls most of the thinking on the Japanese problem in this area, we tried to do two things. The first was to introduce some authoritative information into the picture, and the second to show how the persecution of the Japanese is related to the older and larger problem of all racial persecution, and finally to the problem of persecution itself.

## GENERAL SETTING

THE aim of the unit was to present little-known information which would show how racial prejudice develops according to a relatively definite pattern. The children learned, in a limited fashion of course, that, as Ruth Benedict points out in *Race: Science and Politics*,<sup>1</sup> the history of race persecution is to be found not in the history of racial conflict, but in the history of persecution. The class was able to understand the significance of the fact that race hatred is only a modern innovation in the old, old story of persecution.

The main part of the unit was concerned with the study of flagrant examples of race persecution in the contemporary scene: Nazi treatment of Jewish people, the position of the Negro in American life after three-quarters of a century

of freedom, and the origin and growth of "The Yellow-Peril" idea on the Pacific Coast.

In the course of their reading and research these eighth-grade children were frequently surprised and often shocked at the injustice of which adults are guilty in their dealings with peoples of different races. Because they are still unaffected in the main by the social snobbery that contributes to much of the prejudice of adults, adolescents are far more objective in their judgments, and sometimes are incensed at the frequent disregard of the rules of fair play in the conduct of their elders.

Incidents in the news like the account of the California legislative investigation as reported in *Time* of December 20, 1943, under the heading "Inquisition in Los Angeles," the much discussed story of the Legionnaires of Hood River, Oregon, striking from their honor roll the names of the Japanese Americans in the armed forces, and the newspaper publicized example of the Mayor of Kent, Washington, who headed a local movement to prevent former Japanese residents from ever returning to their homes at the end of the war, were discussed at length. In commenting on the record of the Japanese American troops in Italy, most of the students agreed that, "If they are good enough to die for us, they are good enough to return to this coast and live with us." One boy said, "Groups who deliberately promote race hatred aren't helping the United States to become a real Democracy."

Again in the course of investigating the effectiveness of the Japanese propaganda of "Asia-for-the-Asiatics" type, they discovered why the Japanese have been able to make such effective use of the half-truth propaganda technique, and that the white race as rulers in Asia have contributed so directly to race hatred that the result of that bitter feeling had disastrous repercussions for the Allies in the early stages of their fight against the Japanese. In this connection the class explored

How an eighth grade analyzed its own prejudices, and those of its parents and school associates, is described by a teacher in the Campus Schools of the Western Washington College of Education, Bellingham.

<sup>1</sup> New York: Viking, 1943.



the idea of tribalism, or the psychology of race superiority, as developed in the article by that title by Howard Mumford Jones in the *Atlantic Monthly* for November, 1943, and contrasted it with the Atlantic Charter's four freedoms. Some of the more able thinkers in the group came to the conclusion that the only thing that will save the white race from involvement in a race war in the future is the literal translation of the Atlantic Charter into deeds by men for all men.

#### DEFINING THE STUDY

SO FAR as classroom procedure was concerned the unit started in a classroom discussion on current events, which developed into an argument about the current Japanese problem. This led to a discussion of the question of tolerance in general. It was pointed out that tolerance, as a problem, was larger than the specific issue; that the Nazi-Jewish question and the treatment of the Negro in the United States, as exemplified in news stories which dealt with discrimination against the Negro in the armed forces and in defense industries, were both part of the larger problem.

Two girls discovered at about this time that racial persecution is only a part of the larger problem of persecution and that many examples of it are to be found in religious and political history. They brought history books to class and read aloud excerpts describing the Salem Witchcraft episode and the Inquisition. Everybody was interested, and many members of the class began to see "persecution" in its historical perspective.

As an assignment, all the members of the class found current articles on racial intolerance and reported on them in class. Interest began to develop in the usual manner. Many children brought newspaper clippings and magazines from home; several discussed some phase of the subject during the informal periods of the school day. At this point the class decided to develop a unit on the subject.

The class and the teacher prepared an outline of the particular categories that the articles seemed to fall into. The general headings of the outline were found to be:

- (1) Race-superiority theories
- (2) Racism in Nazi Germany
- (3) Race hatred in Asia and the Pacific and its relation to Japanese propaganda warfare
- (4) The origin of the "Yellow-Peril" scare and its revival on this coast since Pearl Harbor
- (5) The American Negro problem, particularly

as it affects colored members in our defense industries and armed forces.

#### GROUP STUDY AND QUESTIONNAIRE

EACH student decided which topic he wished to investigate further, and this served to divide the class into groups or committees of about six members each. Several class periods were spent on learning the use of the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*. Each group selected references from the *Readers' Guide* which were later used to make the unit bibliography.

Each group chose a chairman, outlined its own topic, and prepared to present its findings to the class in a sort of panel discussion. After each member of the group, or committee as it was later called, had given a report on his reading and research, the class was free to ask questions of the panel. These panel discussions required about two weeks, and when they were finished the class decided to prepare a questionnaire on the subject of tolerance in general.

The students were asked to submit ten questions each for use in the questionnaire. In all, 230 questions were submitted. The pupils had been given a minimum of directions as to the nature and phrasing of their questions, with the inevitable result that some questions had to be rephrased more exactly to avoid double negatives and other grammatical errors. Arbitrarily ruled out of consideration for use in the questionnaire were questions obviously borrowed from some article read. From the remaining seventy questions fifty typical questions were compiled into the questionnaire which was given to the seventh and ninth grades in the Campus School, to a history class of freshmen in Western Washington College of Education, and to the eighth-grade students themselves and their parents.

Of the five groups who participated in the questionnaire the eighth grade was the only one which had previously studied the problem in any organized fashion. For the purposes of interpreting the results of the questionnaire the statements were classified into five groups. Two of them pertained to tolerance in general: to racial discrimination in general, and to imperialism—in this unit limited to British and Dutch imperialism.<sup>2</sup> The other three were concerned with intolerance toward specific groups: the Negroes, the Jews, and the Japanese.

<sup>2</sup> Exigencies of time precluded considering imperialism in a more general sense.

The questionnaire was given to 28 eighth-grade students, 25 ninth-grade, 24 seventh-grade, and 47 college students, and to 27 parents. The tabulation of the results revealed the following percentage distribution of attitudes:

| Group          | Tolerant | Intolerant | Undecided |
|----------------|----------|------------|-----------|
| Japanese       |          |            |           |
| 8th            | 71%      | 22%        | 7%        |
| 9th            | 48       | 44         | 8         |
| 7th            | 56       | 39         | 5         |
| College        | 69       | 28         | 3         |
| Parents        | 55       | 38         | 7         |
| Negro          |          |            |           |
| 8th            | 80%      | 13%        | 7%        |
| 9th            | 65       | 24         | 11        |
| 7th            | 74       | 19         | 7         |
| College        | 75       | 23         | 2         |
| Parents        | 58       | 34         | 8         |
| Jewish         |          |            |           |
| 8th            | 73%      | 17%        | 10%       |
| 9th            | 63       | 23         | 14        |
| 7th            | 68       | 25         | 7         |
| College        | 75       | 22         | 3         |
| Parents        | 72       | 22         | 6         |
| General Racial |          |            |           |
| 8th            | 78%      | 12%        | 9%        |
| 9th            | 54       | 29         | 17        |
| 7th            | 51       | 34         | 15        |
| College        | 76       | 21         | 9         |
| Parents        | 59       | 29         | 12        |
| Imperialism    |          |            |           |
| 8th            | 89%      | 8%         | 3%        |
| 9th            | 69       | 23         | 8         |
| 7th            | 63       | 26         | 11        |
| College        | 73       | 23         | 3         |
| Parents        | 72       | 21         | 7         |

# CONCLUSIONS

AN ANALYSIS of the results of the questionnaire led to these conclusions:

1. That the eighth grade ranked lowest on percent of intolerance on each of the five issues.
2. That the eighth grade ranked highest in tolerance on four of the five issues, being surpassed by the college students on the issue of tolerance toward Jewish people.
3. That the eighth grade, like all of the five groups, was least tolerant toward the Japanese.<sup>3</sup>
4. That the eighth grade, like the other four groups was least intolerant toward the Negro.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>3</sup> The high percentage of racial prejudice expressed on the questionnaire toward the Japanese probably is due to war hysteria and the revived Yellow-Peril scare on this coast.

<sup>4</sup> The higher percentage of tolerance toward the Negro and Jewish races may be due to the negligible number of those racial groups living in this area.

5. That the eighth grade, like the other groups, was least indecisive toward the problem of the Japanese.

The fact that the eighth grade revealed a markedly higher degree of tolerance, and a correspondingly lower degree of intolerance on almost every issue than did the other groups, should not lead to a too hasty conclusion. This higher ranking should not be attributed solely to any single factor. Neither must it be acclaimed as proof of a higher degree of tolerance inculcated by the study alone. Other factors had a bearing on the results. As one pupil naively put it, "In answering the questions do we answer the way we should, or do we answer the way we really think?" But this much at least seems warrantable: the fact that the eighth grade in almost every instance revealed more tolerance and less intolerance to racial problems is due in part, perhaps in large part, to their discovery through reading and research that these are issues which have two sides.

Even though the accomplishment of the aims of the unit fell far short of our hopes, we felt that it was well worth doing. We wished many times in the course of the work that there had been available more material like Ruth Benedict and Gene Weltfish's Public Affairs Pamphlet, *The Races of Mankind*,<sup>5</sup> which is within the range of the understanding of junior high school students. We were well aware at the conclusion of the unit that there remains much to be done. For instance, even in the final discussions it was quite common for some of the members of the class to make remarks like, "I believe that all these examples of abuse and mistreatment of one race by another are true, but I still hate the Japs!" That is, they knew, when they, too, were being guilty of racial hatred, and they were admitting that emotion, not logic, was operating in their thinking, but knowing didn't stop some of them from doing it.

If we are ever able to introduce enough truth and understanding to dispel the evils of racism, it will be because we have become alert to the causes of this vicious practice, and because we are relentless in our efforts to see truth and understanding prevail before it is too late. We, who worked on the unit, came to one definite conclusion: that it's later than you think!

<sup>5</sup> New York: Public Affairs Committee, 1944.

# Notes and News

## Historical Associations

The American Historical Association cancelled its plans for a full meeting in Washington during the holidays. There were held instead meetings of the Council of the Association, a business meeting for such members as could attend, and a dinner meeting at which the presidential address was read by Carlton J. H. Hayes of Columbia University. The president for 1946 is Sidney B. Fay of Harvard University; the vice-president is T. J. Wertentaker of Princeton University.

The Pacific Coast Branch of the American Historical Association held an abbreviated meeting at Stanford University on January 19. Another one-day meeting will be held later at or near Los Angeles.

## New York State Council

The ninth annual Christmas meeting of the New York State Council for the Social Studies was held at Syracuse on December 27. Reports on activities of the Council were given by Harold Long, Edith Starratt, Roy A. Price, Robert Getman, and Kathryn Heffernan. The speakers included W. Linwood Chase of Boston University; Irving Ives, dean of the School of Labor Relations, Cornell University; Richard Burkhardt of Syracuse University; and Mildred McChesney, State supervisor of social studies. A panel was held on the social studies sequence for grades ten through twelve.

The first issue of *The Citizenship Journal*, which replaces the *Bulletin* previously issued by the New York State Council, appeared in November. It will be issued three times a year, in printed form. The editor is Harold M. Long, Glens Falls High School; the business manager is Rodney B. Chipp, Columbia High School, East Greenbush. It includes articles, reports of activities and other news, and book reviews.

## Long Island Council

The Long Island Social Studies Council at a December dinner meeting gave serious consideration to the curtailed time allotment recommended for the social studies in New York State in the *Report of the Committee on Postwar Issues in Secondary Education*. With the colleges and

universities moving in the direction of more concentration on the social studies, as the Harvard report and recent articles on the Princeton program indicate, it was felt that the secondary schools should not take regressive measures at this time. It was voted that a resolution be sent to the December principals' meeting in Syracuse endorsing the resolution of the New York State Council for the Social Studies as presented in the fall issue of *The Citizenship Journal*, and that the Long Island Social Studies Council send a delegate to the principals' meeting in order to listen to the proceedings and speak for the present social studies program.

The guest speaker of the evening was Mildred F. McChesney, State supervisor of social studies, who evaluated the new "comprehensive" examination, pointing to specific areas which require improvement, and listing the techniques which the examination is designed to test. Miss McChesney was introduced by Gertrude Wetterauer, president of the Long Island Social Studies Council. (F.A.G.)

## Canada-United States Workshop

In the summer of 1945, at the request of the Canada-United States Committee of the Canada and Newfoundland Education Association, the first Workshop in International Relations was held at the University of British Columbia at Vancouver. On the basis of this experiment, a second course is being planned for the summer of 1946, probably from July 2 through August 3.

The Workshop will be of special interest to Canadian and American teachers of social studies and to laymen or students who are particularly interested in international affairs. The curriculum will cover Canadian-United States relations and world organization, and will be flexible enough to meet specific interests of the Workshop members.

The aim throughout the sessions is to bring together members from various parts of western Canada and the United States, and through lectures, discussion and social activities to promote friendship, and mutual understanding of the problems, policies, and aspirations of our two countries and their relations with other nations.

The Workshop will be under the direction of



Dr. Warren E. Tomlinson, head of the department of history and political science in the College of Puget Sound, Tacoma. Outstanding Canadian and American authorities will take part in sessions on specific topics.

Sessions will be held in the mornings from Monday through Friday each week. For the most part, afternoons will be free for recreation so that American visitors may join Canadian in leisure activities. Vancouver offers all the facilities of a summer playground: swimming, mountain climbing, golf, riding, excursions by boat and bus to famous scenic points.

Since, owing to the nature of the course, it may be necessary to limit registration, the University reserves the right to approve applications. This should not, however, deter anyone who is genuinely interested from making application. Applications should be submitted by July 2, 1946, to the Director, Department of University Extension, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, B.C., together with the \$30 Workshop fee.

### International Affairs

The Woodrow Wilson Foundation, 45 East 65th Street, New York 21, has established the *United Nations News*, a monthly publication concerned with the United Nations Organization. The first issue, for January, in 8 pages, includes "U.N.O. in the Atomic Age," on control of the atomic bomb; "Detailed Plans Worked Out for U.N.O.," on progress toward the setting up of United Nations machinery; and "U.N.E.S.C.O. Adopts a Constitution," together with shorter articles and a short bibliography of official sources and documents. Annual subscription for 12 issues is two dollars.

*Music of the United Nations*, by Anne E. Pierce, has been issued as University of Iowa Extension Bulletin No. 592, at 25 cents a copy. The music of the United States, Great Britain, Russia, China, Belgium, Canada, Czechoslovakia, Free France, Greece, the countries of Latin America, the Netherlands, Norway, and Poland is treated in brief introductory essays, by the printing, with music, of the national anthem of each, and by listing vocal and instrumental music and recordings for each. Suggestions for public or school programs, references, and a key to publishers are included in the 96-page publication.

Related to the purpose of Miss Pierce's volume is an article by Paul E. Duffield, of Northeast High School, Philadelphia, on "'Global Music'—an Audio-Visual Tour," in the *Educational*

*Screen* for December. It outlines units on the United States and Latin America and on Russia, and suggests seven additional units.

The *Geographic School Bulletins*, published weekly through the school year by the National Geographic Society, Washington 6, at 25 cents a year, provide picture material and information of value to teachers and pupils in the fields of geography, history, and current events. Each issue has 12 pages and carries seven pictures, or occasionally a map in place of one of the pictures.

Teachers and students of current events and modern problems should have access to *Vital Speeches*, issued twice a month, at \$3.50 a year, by the City News Publishing Co., 33 West 42nd Street, New York 18. It publishes addresses of the President, Cabinet members, and other public officials and leaders in public affairs in the United States and occasionally in other countries. The December 1 issue, for example, includes two addresses of President Truman and speeches by Prime Minister Attlee, General Eisenhower, Senator Vandenberg, and Former-Governor Stassen.

### Intergroup Education

The November, 1945, issue of *The Journal of Educational Sociology* is devoted to "Race Relations on the Pacific Coast." L. D. Reddick, issue editor, contributes the introductory article on "The New Race-Relations Frontier." "Profiles" of Seattle, Portland, San Francisco, and Los Angeles follow, with a critical summary by Carey McWilliams. A select bibliography is appended. Wartime migration, jobs, housing, civil rights, and problems of postwar reconversion are recurring themes.

*American Unity*, a monthly educational guide issued by the Council against Intolerance in America, 17 East 42nd Street, New York 17, continues to deal both with educational problems and activities and with background materials for teachers and pupils. The October issue included "The Race Problem in the Classroom," by Charles I. Glicksberg, and "Any School Can Try This Plan," by Elizabeth S. Hirsch. The November number carried "The New Negro Press," by Cora E. Hawkins, and "Education in Action," by Peggy Masback Cahn. December articles included "School Strikes in Gary, Chicago and New York," by Norma Jensen; "Bigotry at Home Mocks Sacrifices by Soldiers," by William Mauldin; and "I Faced the High School Race Problem" (anonymous).

The Council has also distributed reprints of

"The Contributions of Workshops to Intercultural Education," reprinted from the January number of *American Unity*.

Another publication of very direct value to teachers concerned with intergroup education is *Intercultural Education News*, published by the Bureau for Intercultural Education, 1697 Broadway, New York 19, under the editorship of William Van Til. The November issue, for example, included "An Anthropologist Looks at Race," by W. M. Krogman of the University of Chicago; "On Our Way in Philadelphia," by C. Leslie Cushman and others; and "Democracy and Intercultural Education," by William H. Kilpatrick.

The Bureau for Intercultural Education also has reprints of "Intercultural Books for Children," by Helen Trager, which appeared in the November *Childhood Education*. The article surveys earlier bibliographies and lists 71 titles for children from pre-school through junior high school age.

The Writers' War Board, 122 East 42nd Street, New York 17, has prepared a kit, available on request, on "The Myth That Threatens America." The kit includes five speeches delivered at a Board meeting in January, 1945: "The American—Fact and Fiction," by Rex Stout; "Prejudice Is Bad Business," by Eric Johnston; "Is There an American Type?" by Margaret Mead; "It Can Mean Civil War," by John Ray Carlson; and "Take This Home with You," by Christopher La Farge. A quiz and other materials are also included.

The Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, of the American Council on Education, has sponsored a College Study in Intergroup Relations, with Lloyd Allen Cook of the Ohio State University, Columbus, as director. Special work will be undertaken in nine colleges and universities, in five large areas related to intergroup education: curriculum, student campus activities, community study, adult education, and college staff viewpoints. An 8-page mimeographed "Working Bibliography" and list of agencies at work in intergroup relations was issued last July.

### Teaching-Learning Materials

A 14-page "List of Outstanding Teaching and Learning Materials," most of them issued by state departments of education or boards of education, in the years 1942-45 has been compiled by L. Thomas Hopkins, Florence Stratemeyer, and Maxie N. Woodring. It is available from the

Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of the NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, at 10 cents. About 2 pages are devoted to social studies.

### In Educational Magazines

Robert E. Keohane of the University of Chicago contributes "Use of Primary Sources in United States History for High School Pupils" to the December number of *The School Review*. He deals with six kinds of value in the use of sources for eleventh and twelfth grade classes: (1) inspirational; (2) "making history live"; (3) reinforcing knowledge about important persons, events, laws, institutions, and problems; (4) gaining firsthand knowledge of significant documents; (5) developing habits of critical reading and thinking; and (6) gaining familiarity with some creative ideas in United States history through analysis of some of the classic statements of American social thought. Several source collections and treatments of the value of sources and critical method are noted.

"A New Curriculum Planned for the Neglected 60%" is described by Warren W. Cox, director of the Division of Research of the New York State Department of Education, in the December *Clearing House*. The characteristics and needs of the 60 per cent are analyzed, and offerings in eight areas are proposed: (1) planning one's life; (2) living with others; (3) how other people live; (4) home activities; (5) training in skills and techniques; (6) health; (7) work experience; and (8) avocational and hobby interests. Preparation for political citizenship is treated incidentally under "Living with Others": "'Living with others' would involve a study of the organizational life of the community, and possibly of the state and nation."

The same issue of *Clearing House* includes "Can We Justify a Junior High School Court?" by James A. Sheldon of Des Moines, and "Social Conduct: South High's Course," by Mary Beery of Lima, Ohio.

"A Contribution of Anthropology to the Education of the Teacher," by Robert Redfield of the University of Chicago, appeared in the November issue of *The School Review*. Dr. Redfield deals with the basic idea of "A Culture," the significance to teachers of the idea of an integrated culture, the significance of the idea of culture in modern schools, and the teacher's task. A useful short reference list is appended.

# Pamphlets and Government Publications

Leonard B. Irwin

## Public Affairs

*Political Parties: An American Way*, by Franklin L. Burdette (Public Affairs Committee, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20. 10 cents) is the second in a series entitled *Basic American Concepts*, issued jointly by the Public Affairs Committee and the National Foundation for Education in American Citizenship. It deals with two major questions—in what specific ways are our political parties indispensable in a democratic system? By what services do they justify their existence? The author describes the growth and reasons for parties and shows how they fulfill the democratic way. Methods of representation, the conduct of elections, and the participation of the citizen in parties are discussed. There are a number of good charts which should help to make the pamphlet a very useful one for civics classes.

In the same general field of government is *Our American Government, What is it? How does it function?* (79-1: H. Doc. 228—Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25. 10 cents). It contains 279 questions and answers which form a comprehensive and interesting history and picture of the federal government.

*Public Opinion Measurement*, by Laszlo Radvanyi (Instituto Cientifico de la Opinion Publica Mexicana, Donato Guerra 1, Desp. 207, Mexico. \$1) is a very interesting survey of the public opinion polls of the United States, made by the director of the Scientific Institute of Mexican Public Opinion. It is based upon the replies to a series of questions asked of American social scientists, journalists, government officials, and others concerned with the topic. Mr. Radvanyi is seeking to determine the attitude of public men toward opinion polls, and he promises a future analysis of the same type for other countries. In this 88-page pamphlet he analyzes the responses of American leaders to questions about the validity of polls, their influence on public opinion, the best methods of conducting them, and the possible future value of such surveys. The replies are tabulated statistically and representative opinions are cited. In a separate section answers are quoted from specific individuals, and these are particu-

larly interesting and valuable. While the majority of expert opinion favors polls, there are a number of opponents among prominent social scientists.

*Here's How It's Done*, by Florence B. Widutis (Postwar Information Exchange, Inc., 41 Maiden Lane, New York 7. \$1) is an 80-page illustrated guide for community leaders who want information on how to plan programs for mobilizing public interest in national and international affairs. It reports on methods which have been used by groups throughout the country to stimulate people to think and make their opinions count. Radio, forums, literature, newspapers, films, recordings, and every other conceivable form of media are being used by civic groups to wake the people to their problems, and this pamphlet shows how it is done. Included is a directory of 280 national organizations which produce program and study materials for local groups.

*Labor Savings in American Industry, 1899-1939*, by Solomon Fabricant (National Bureau of Economic Research, 1819 Broadway, New York 23. 50 cents) is a scholarly pamphlet of 50 pages analyzing and summarizing the progress of forty years in the field of industrial labor-saving. The author shows that the productivity of our labor, because of improved machinery, approximately doubled during the four decades, and our national product per capita increased about two thirds. The analysis which reaches these conclusions is supported by careful reasoning and authoritative statistics.

*The Refugees Are Now Americans*, by Maurice R. Davie and Samuel Koenig (Public Affairs Committee, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20. 10 cents) is a summary of a survey conducted by the Committee for the Study of Recent Immigration from Europe. While Americans know that many refugees from oppression have come to this country since the rise of Hitlerism, they may not know much about their subsequent history. They can learn from this pamphlet, for instance, that half of these refugees are now American citizens, and most of the rest are on the way to citizenship. They may be relieved to find that even in the



most severe emergencies our quota laws were never set aside. As a matter of fact, in the fourteen years from 1933 on, only 16.8 per cent of the total of admissible aliens have actually entered the United States—the smallest number of immigrants for any similar period for over a century. The survey shows that the great majority of refugees have become useful and productive members of our society and have been accepted in a friendly spirit. There can be no question but that we have been the gainer by virtue of the skills and technical knowledge which many eminent refugees have brought here with them. It is pleasant to learn that most of them like America and are grateful for its shelter. As an example of this attitude, it is worth while in passing to cite the article by Hans Bendix in *The Saturday Review of Literature* for December 1.

*Report on First Session of the Council of Foreign Ministers*, by James F. Byrnes (Department of State Publication 2398, Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25. 5 cents) is the printed text of the report broadcast by Mr. Byrnes on October 5, 1945. It explains the differences of opinion between the USSR and the other powers which led to the failure of the session.

### Other Topics

*Virginia's People: A Cultural Panorama*, by Joseph B. Gittler (Virginia State Planning Board, Richmond) is a booklet of 125 pages presenting an excellent study of the people of Virginia. It is a first-rate example of the kind of studies of individual states or communities which have a real sociological and economic value. The topics analyzed are five: the population (migration pattern, sex composition, fertility, employment characteristics); housing; education; recreation and social participation; and social and personal disorganization (crime, delinquency, divorce). Each of these is examined in the text and is accompanied by graphs and tables. It is a very thorough and satisfactory piece of work. Some of the findings will not be pleasing to Virginians, but as the author says, it is in their power to correct them.

*Gyps and Swindles*, by William Trufant Foster (Public Affairs Committee, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20. 10 cents) is a most interesting and valuable little booklet. It is also timely because

of the plentifulness of money, especially among recently discharged veterans. It describes in plain terms some of the more common types of rackets and swindles. The general principle emphasized is —“refuse to do business with strangers whose honesty cannot be checked.” The booklet describes a wide variety of common tricks—the smooth salesman of stocks, or cemetery lots for investment; mail-order swindles; the Spanish prisoner fraud (still operating); “smuggled” goods; health cures; gyp schools; and scores of others. The author includes a very useful list of “don’ts” and another of things to beware of when suggested by a stranger. Apparently there is always a gullible minority of Americans who can be persuaded to pay money or sign papers for something they know nothing about. The pamphlet gives information on sources from which reliable business advice can be obtained.

Mildred Sandison Fenner, assistant editor of the *NEA Journal*, has compiled a little booklet entitled *NEA History* (National Education Association, Washington 6. 50 cents). In about 160 pages she provides a review of the growth and accomplishments of the NEA. The present membership of nearly a third of a million teachers is a vast increase over that of the Association’s first thirty years when it rarely numbered four hundred. At the end of World War I, membership was still only ten thousand. The faith and perseverance of the early leaders has borne fruit in the great organization of today. The history of the NEA is to a considerable extent the history of American public education in the past century, and it is well told by Miss Fenner.

*Radar* (British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20. Free) is primarily a history of radar’s development and its use in the war. There is a brief and simple account of how it works and a glossary of radar terms. It is a useful presentation of popular information on the subject.

*Trees and Forests of Louisiana*, by Ralph W. Hayes (J. M. Boyet, State Department of Education, Capital Building, Baton Rouge, Louisiana. 15 cents) is the third in a series of publications designed for use as supplementary material in the upper elementary grades of Louisiana. It explains fully, with drawings and photographs, the nature, kinds, and value of trees, and how forest conservation is carried on.

# Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

## Radio Notes

CBS recently announced demonstrations of full color television. A small booklet describing the development is free upon request to Columbia Broadcasting System, 485 Madison Ave., New York. Also ask to be put on the mailing list for *Listen*, a monthly bulletin of interesting facts about broadcasting.

A series of eight or ten official forums will again be conducted by the U. S. Department of State on the NBC University of the Air program, "Our Foreign Policy." The series, which started December 15, is broadcast Saturdays from 7:00 to 7:30 P.M., EST. The broadcasts will be concerned with our foreign policy for China, Russia, Latin America, eastern Europe, western Europe, Germany, and Japan, as well as our policy on the United Nations, and international trade.

Following is a list of programs in the field of public affairs made available by the American Broadcasting Company to its affiliated stations.

*Headline Edition*, Mondays through Fridays, 7:00-7:15 P. M., EST

News commentary dramatizations of the news, and statements by the people who actually make the news.

*America's Town Meeting*, Thursdays, 8:30-9:30 P.M., EST

Now in its eleventh year.

*Chester Bowles*, Saturdays, 11:30-11:45 A.M., EST

The latest news in rationing by the head of the Office of Price Administration.

*Jobs After Victory*, Saturdays, 7:00-7:15 P.M., EST

Presented in cooperation with the Committee for Economic Development, a non-profit, non-political organization of America's leading business men. Research problems in such matters as marketing, taxation, and foreign trade are dealt with.

## Recordings

National Industrial Information Committee, National Association of Manufacturers, New York City.

*Businessmen Look to the Future*. 33 1/3 r.p.m. Free loan. "Housing," "Oil," "Lumber," "Automobiles," "Future of Flying."

United States Recording Co., 1121 Vermont Avenue, Washington 5.

*Youth Looks to San Francisco*. 78 r.p.m. 45-minute program of a discussion broadcast. \$15.00.

*Opening Plenary Session of San Francisco Conference*. 78 r.p.m. 15 minutes, \$5.00.

World Wide Broadcasting Foundation, 598 Madison Avenue, New York 22.

*Beyond Victory*. 33 1/3 r.p.m. A series of recordings on postwar problems. Write for complete list if you have suitable, slow-speed record player.

## Motion Picture News

A list of films giving labor's point of view on today's problems may be obtained for 10 cents from the CIO Department of Research and Education, 718 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington 6.

Projectors for 16-mm., sound films are coming back on the market with a rush. Each presents certain advantages, and each has its enthusiastic backers among teachers. RCA has recently announced its Model 201. Equipped with a 20-watt audio amplifier, it claims to make possible sound reproduction at the exact pitch at which the sound was originally recorded. The best test of a projector is to try it out in your own classroom: To obtain a demonstration of the RCA Model 201 write to RCA Victor Division, Radio Corporation of America, Camden, New Jersey.

Other leading manufacturers of sound motion picture projectors who should be contacted before a final choice is decided upon are: DeVry Corp., 1111 Armitage Avenue, Chicago 14; Bell and Howell Co., 7109 McCormick Road, Chicago 45; Ampro Corporation, Chicago 18; Victor Animatograph Corp., McGraw Hill Bldg., New York 18; Young America Films, Inc., 32 East 57th Street, New York 22 (which handles Natco projectors); Movie-Mite Corp., 1109 East 15th Street, Kansas City 6, Missouri.

A thick, well organized catalog of 16-mm. motion pictures for entertainment and education may be had on request from International Theatrical and Television Corp., 25 West 45th Street, New York 19.

## Recent 16-MM. Films

Brandon Films Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York 19.

*Now the Peace*. 20 minutes, sound; rental: \$2.50. Factual summary of the basic United Nations Organization's program for world security.

British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

*V.E. Day*. 10 minutes, sound; small service fee. Signing

of terms of unconditional surrender by Germans; world rejoicing.

Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 405 West 117th Street, New York 27.

*Watchtower Over Tomorrow.* 20 minutes, sound; rental: 50 cents. How the United Nations Organization will work.

Castle Films, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

*News Parade of the Year—1945.* 10 minutes, sound; sale, \$17.50. Highlights of the news as it was recorded in 1945.

Young America Films, 32 East 57th Street, New York 22.

*Our Shrinking World.* 10 minutes, sound; rental: apply. How time and distance have yielded to modern methods of transportation and communication.

### Film Strips

The most complete listing of film strips available from any one source is included in the catalog of the Society for Visual Education, 100 East Ohio Street, Chicago 11; catalog free upon request. Also ask for descriptive material on the SVE Tri-purpose projectors which take single and double frame film strips, and 2x2 inch slides.

Young America Films, 32 East 57th Street, New York 22, distributes the new Argus projector for film strips and 2x2 inch slides. It is quite reasonably priced.

Eighteen strips on "U.S. Activities in the Pacific" are now offered by Stillfilm Inc., 8443 Melrose Avenue, Hollywood 46, California. They deal largely with the Pacific islands, China, and Japan with little reference to the United States as a Pacific power. Price for the complete set, \$17.50.

### Latin-American Color Slides

Kodachrome slides, more than 1,500 in number, showing life in Central and South American Republics, are now available on loan to schools and colleges from the Division of International Educational Relations, U.S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency. The slides are in natural color, 2x2 inches in size, and may be projected from a standard size slide projector. Sets of slides for 33 different titles are now available for free loan on request. Each set will be accompanied by teachers' notes giving information relating to the subject shown on each slide. Slides are mounted between glass and shipped in a small wooden box. The loan period is three weeks. The borrower assumes the responsibility for the safe return by parcel post of each set borrowed. Write for address of nearest distributor and for a complete list of the 33 titles.

### Maps and Globes

One of the most recent catalogs of teaching material to reach our desk is the 40-page booklet from George F. Cram Co., 730 East Washington Street, Indianapolis 7. Featured in this catalog is the new Simplified Globe SE-14. Designed for the lower grades this globe lists 150 place names, shows the outlines of the principal land masses, but contains no political boundaries.

"Cleartype Maps" are a complete line of black and white or color print maps in outline form. Write to American Map Co., 16 East 42nd Street, New York 17, for a catalog.

Denoyer-Geppert Co., 5235 Ravenswood Avenue, Chicago 40, have just sent us their catalog No. 21. It's an attractive and complete listing of maps, globes, atlases, charts, and models.

A. J. Nystrom and Co., 3333 Elston Avenue, Chicago 18, has issued its new map catalog, No. C45. It describes, in color, visual aids for teaching the social studies. Free on request.

### Posters

Among the most attractive and useful visual aids available to social studies teachers are good posters. If the poster is simple, colorful, and graphic, many lessons can be taught from it and it is a sure discussion stimulator. Posters, as the name implies, are best used on classroom, or sometimes on other school, bulletin boards. If their use stops here then they are merely decorative. They must be referred to and used as a part of the teaching process. To do this most effectively the teacher should have a number of posters at his disposal. They may be pupil-made, teacher-made, or commercial products. With a good selection of posters, filed for ready use, the teacher may change his displays frequently and in such a manner as to enliven and enrich his teaching.

Among the commercial sources of posters are:

Association for the United Nations, 45 East 65th Street, New York 21.

Single sheets, 8x10 $\frac{1}{4}$  inches in size on the United Nations Organization. Free.

Milton Bradley Co., Springfield 2, Massachusetts.

Largely primary school posters, including: "Farm Life," "Indian Life," "Mt. Vernon," "South America." Average cost, 60 cents.

Ditto, Inc., 2254 W. Harrison Street, Chicago 12.

Master sheets for duplicating poster materials on a large number of subjects.

E. I. du Pont de Nemours & Co., Empire State Bldg., New York 1.

Chart on rayon. Free.



Friendship Press, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York 10.

Large posters and picture maps on various nations of the world. Average price 50 cents each.

General Motors Corp., Dept. of Public Relations, Detroit 2.  
Reprints of advertisements showing advances in science. Free.

H. J. Heinz Co., Pittsburgh 30, Pennsylvania.  
Free monthly charts telling story of foods.

National Forum Inc., 407 South Dearborn Street, Chicago.  
Personality and guidance posters, \$25.00 per set. Also economic charts.

F. A. Owens Publishing Co., Dansville, New York.  
Good elementary school posters including: "Community Helpers," "Safety Posters," "Constitution," "Citizenship," "Symbols of Democracy," "Symbols of Freedom." Size 10x13 inches. Price, \$1.00 per set.

Ralston Purina Co., Nutrition Dept., Checkerboard Square, St. Louis 2, Missouri.  
Color wall chart on wheat. Free.

School Service, Westinghouse Electric Corp., Pittsburgh 30.  
Free science posters, issued monthly. Each subject treated historically.

Teaching Material Service, Pleasantville, New York.  
Charts and picture posters such as "Lumbering," "Conservation," "Marble Quarrying," "Deep Sea Fishing." Size 22x17 inches. 40 cents each.

U.S. Travel Bureau, U.S. Department of Interior, Washington.  
*Descriptive Poster List.* A complete list of travel posters. Last published in 1941. Request for posters should be made directly to source mentioned.

U.S. Women's Bureau, Washington 25.  
Negro Women Workers, series of charts, loaned free.

### Comic Book

The American Association for the United Nations, 45 East 65th Street, New York 21, distributes an 8-page booklet in comic book style entitled *A Third World War Can Be Prevented Now*. In colored pictures the booklet sketches the development of international cooperation from the cave man to the San Francisco Conference. The sketches show the purpose and organization of the United Nations Organization. The booklets sell at 50 cents per hundred copies.

### Inter-American Loan Packets

Through its loan service, the U. S. Office of Education circulates to teachers and school administrators many valuable and timely materials on a wide range of subjects. The loan packets contain bibliographies, source lists, magazines, pictures, maps, games, units and courses of study, program outlines, skits, descriptive booklets, conference reports, reprints of articles, question-

naires, and other materials ranging in difficulty from elementary grades through college. Materials in the packets that are found suitable after examination may be ordered from publishers; source and price are indicated on each item. Packets may be borrowed for three weeks without cost to the borrower, except return postage. The packets average about 4 pounds in weight. Return postage, depending upon zone, amounts to 15 to 40 cents on each packet. Requests should be addressed to the Division of Inter-American Educational Relations, U. S. Office of Education, Washington 25. Packets are available on "Sources of Instructional Material," "Brazil," "Social Studies," "Plays, Pageants and Programs," "Economic Problems." A complete list of the packets with full descriptions of their contents will be sent upon request.

### NEA Audio-Visual Service

The National Education Association has established an Audio-Visual Instructional Service to promote the expansion and development of all types of audio-visual aids, including radio and television, on all levels of education throughout the nation. As outlined in a recent statement by the new Director of the Department, Vernon G. Dameron, the following general aspects of the field will receive much consideration: (1) means by which audio-visual instruction can be made less expensive; (2) criteria for more effective selection and evaluation of audio-visual aids; (3) methods and techniques for more effective integration in the curriculum and utilization of audio-visual aids; (4) provisions for closer collaboration between educators and producers of audio-visual materials; (5) methods for more coordinated and expedient distribution of audio-visual materials; (6) encouragement of widespread adoption of audio-visual instruction; (7) promotion of audio-visual instruction for instilling desirable attitudes and appreciations; and (8) research.

### Teaching Aids and the Armed Forces

The report of the Committee on Military Training Aids and Instructional Materials, *Use of Training Aids in the Armed Services* (Bulletin 1945, No. 9, Washington, Superintendent of Documents, 10 cents), is worthy of the attention of every social studies teacher. Here is a summary of training practices in the armed forces and a statement of the conclusions which seem to grow out of this experience. Emphasis is placed upon

the importance of audio-visual materials in the development of desired attitudes as well as skills.

Other points worth noting are the use of humor, "eye-appeal," and naturalness to stimulate interest. Here the armed forces seem to have accomplished much in creating materials highly suitable to the level of ability of the learner. The emphasis was placed upon creating training conditions which were as nearly as possible like real conditions of action, in which the learner could "learn by doing." The report is stimulating and challenging, and should help the civilian educator in his endeavor to make the most effective use of available aids.

### Terrain Model Building

A new activity for the school is completely outlined in *How to Build Terrain Models*, a 28-page illustrated pamphlet available free from the U.S. Office of Education, Washington 25. This pamphlet was written for the Office of Education by the U.S. Navy, Office of Research and Inventions. The manual describes in nontechnical terms simple methods of construction that are the outgrowth of experiences in the Navy. Geography teachers will welcome the practical help which this booklet offers.

### Helpful Articles

- Ahl, Frances N. "Assembly Film Programs," *Social Studies*, XXXVI:291-293, November, 1945. Outlines a program of assembly films built around a central theme.
- Aigner, Lucien. "Photography a Tool of Interpretation," *Nation's Schools*, XXXVI:26-27, December, 1945. How photography can be used to study children and to report school programs to the public.
- Ashley, Robert E. "Pilgrim Pageant," *Grade Teacher*, LXIII:46-47, November, 1945. Two pages of pictures showing the Pilgrim Pageant given by the grade schools of Plymouth, Massachusetts.
- Bavely, Ernest. "Dramatic Arts Training for Youth," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXXIV:196-197, December, 1945. Stresses the fact that "schools must take upon themselves the responsibility of giving young people basic training in dramatic arts—radio, television, motion pictures and the stage."
- Cash, R. H. "Visual Education Comes of Age," *School Executive*, LXV:57, December, 1945. How visual education grew up in South Dakota.
- Corey, Stephen M. "The Importance of Perceptual Learning," *Educational Screen*, XXIV:394-397, 404, November, 1945. A stimulating and challenging article on the importance of concrete materials.
- Dameron, Vernon G. "Our New NEA Audio-Visual Instructional Service," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXXIV:189, December, 1945. The new Director of the NEA Division of Audio-Visual instruction summarizes the policies which he will endeavor to carry out.
- Dameron, Vernon G. "Wanted: A Broad Concept of Audio-Visual Instruction," *Educational Leadership*, III:139-141, December, 1945. A description of the variety of aids available.
- De Bernardis, Amo, and Lange, Phil C. "Teacher Training in the Use of Instructional Materials," *Educational Screen*, XXIV:447-449, Equipment, practice, general training program.
- Duggan, John E. "Let's Teach for Peace as We Taught for War," *Educational Screen*, XXIV:410, November, 1945. Funds, equipment, and skills are needed to make education for peace effective.
- Duggan, John E., "The Film and International Understanding," *Ibid.*, XXIV:452-453, December, 1945. "Now the Peace" and "U.S.S.R.—The Land and the People" as classroom aids.
- Flood, Marion. "Winning the Peace," *Grade Teacher*, LXIII:60, 75, November, 1945. A social studies play for elementary grades.
- Folger, D. F. "Experience Curriculum for Teaching," *Educational Leadership*, III:123-126, December, 1945. How prospective teachers study community problems.
- Gilmore, A. "Americans All," *Grade Teacher*, LXIII:56, November, 1945. A pageant for patriotic programs.
- Hankammer, O. A. "The Realities of Current History," *See and Hear*, 1:20-28, November, 1945. A discussion of a film on geopolitics and its use in the classroom.
- Hoban, Charles F., Jr. "Films and Textbooks," *Educational Screen*, XXIV:445-446, 449, December, 1945. The need for coordination of films with textbooks to overcome weaknesses in the latter.
- Park, Joe. "How They Thought They Were Motivated," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXIX:193-200, November, 1945. A study of pupil reports on what made them want to learn. Indicates four factors which seem to stimulate them, (1) rewards and punishment, (2) audio-visual materials, (3) teachers' personality and knowledge of subject, (4) miscellaneous, including clubs, construction work, reading, current events, guests speakers, etc.
- Porter, Paul A. "Radio Progress to Date," *School Life*, XXXVIII:5, 10, December, 1945. An address by the chairman of the FCC.
- Sams, Oscar E. "Eyes and Ears South," *See and Hear*, 1:63-77, November, 1945. Work of the Office of Inter-American Affairs.
- Stenius, Arthur C. "Auditory and Visual Education," *Review of Educational Research*, XV:243-255, June, 1945. A summary of the recent research in this field.
- Young, W. Edward and Stanford, Eva. "Something Out of Nothing Much," *Nation's Schools*, XXXVI:42, December, 1945. Suggestions for using scraps of materials in construction work.



# Book Reviews

ONE WORLD IN THE MAKING. By Ralph Barton Perry. New York: Current Books, 1945. Pp. 275. \$3.00.

This book might better be called "The Philosophical Bases of One World," since the author discusses the underlying principles which must be adhered to if a world order is to appear which will be morally, politically, legally, economically, culturally, educationally, and religiously sound. Himself a philosopher, he almost inevitably injects the philosophical approach into each of the chapters—What It Takes to Make a World, Moral Foundations of World Order, Political Frame of World Order, The World-Wide Rule of Law, World Economy, World Culture and National Culture, Education and World Citizenship, and The Humanity of Religion and The Religion of Humanity.

Vigorously and repeatedly he asserts that the bed rock upon which such a world must be built is "moral unity." "World conscience," he maintains, "is the basic achievement, only partially, but already revealing its form, which underlies all other achievements. . . ."

The scope of the book is extremely ambitious and those who expect to find proof of advances in the making of one world or specific steps towards building such a world, will be disappointed. But those who are looking for a frame of reference for all their efforts towards building a better world, or for a philosophical undergirding for the political, educational and cultural, and other structures we are now in the process of building, will find a most provocative and stimulating aid in this volume by one of Harvard's well-known writers and professors.

LEONARD S. KENWORTHY

C.P.S. No. 23  
Coshocton, Ohio

HISTORY OF WORLD WAR II. By Francis Trevelyan Miller. Philadelphia: Winston, 1945. Pp. x, 966. \$5.00.

This volume is difficult to review. It contains much that is good and much that is poor. The publishers boast that the first bound book was delivered only twenty-five days after V-J Day. That boast in a way classifies the work: it might

well be the war supplement of a newspaper. Despite the amazingly frequent repetition in the text that the book is honest-to-goodness "history" written by "historians" directed by a "historian-general," the volume is basically journalistic. The yearning for the historical label is so great that this strange sentence, for example, appears on page 941, following a list of people who gave aid to the authors: "To the aforementioned authorities who have extended courtesies in reply to our inquiries, we give this *historical recognition*." (reviewer's italics). Actually, some of the "200 assistants on 30 battlefronts" who helped in the "writing and editing" of the book would seem to be much in need of historical training, not to say study.

Whether because of lack of knowledge or bad proof-reading, there are too many errors in the volume to inspire confidence. The names of Ludendorff, vom Rath, and Hugenberg are misspelled; so are Innsbruck and Mitteleuropa. On page 68 alone there are misspellings of *Rassenschande*, *Reichsbischof*, and *Voelkischer Beobachter*. Even on one of the pictures, Lieutenant General Walter B. Smith is called Walter D. Smith. "Wandering birds" is certainly a peculiar translation of *Wandervoegel*. OVRA did not stand for the precise words indicated on page 91.

It is historically wrong, as well as ungrammatical, to say (page 86): "The Triple Alliance contracted Italy to fight Germany and Austro-Hungary (*sic*). Norway's independence does not "date from 1814" as recorded on page 137. Hitler did not, as is stated on page 62, "have himself appointed" to the office of "Supreme Court of Justice of the German people." It is at least a misuse of the word "literally" to say (page 102) that Schuschnigg was "literally raised from the dead when the American Armies of liberation defeated, imprisoned, and drove to suicide" his persecutors.

According to page 94, but not according to history, certain elections in Austria "gave the Social Democrats the majority of votes." Page 98 has it that Dollfuss "was assassinated by a band of Nazi gunmen who broke into the Chancellery"; in reality they walked in unmolested as the result of a ruse. What is meant by the statement, on page 153, that Belgium's "international



status" was "explicitly defined in the Covenant of the League of Nations and the Kellogg Pact"? It is not correct to say, as is done on page 301, that after the First World War Japan "obtained the German possessions in the Far East and was awarded the mandate over the countless islands whose names became familiar in World War II."

Aside from such errors, the volume suffers from the frequent use of superlatives. To cite only one instance—one because of lack of space, not lack of examples—page 109 has a sentence reading that, at Munich, "he [Benes] was subjected to the most outrageous conspiracy ever directed against a peaceful nation." One cannot but wonder whether the author of this ungrammatical statement really has knowledge of the previous outrageous conspiracies against peaceful nations, or whether he is merely striving for effect.

Once the book gets into the story of actual campaigns and battles, the quality is better. Presumably much of this part is based on official communiqués and reports. The selection of photographs and maps is good, and there is a useful chronology covering the period from September 1, 1939 to September 2, 1945 (V-J Day). But, in a reference volume of nearly 1,000 pages, which mentions thousands of persons, places, and events, there is no index! Would that there had been a little less speed in publication and a little more attention to accuracy and detail!

WALTER CONSUELO LANGSAM

Wagner College

**THE PACIFIC, ITS LANDS AND PEOPLES.** By Frances Carpenter. New York: American Book, 1944. Pp. 502. \$1.40.

*The Pacific, Its Lands and Peoples*, falls into three parts: an "overview" of the Pacific Basin, a 60-page section on historical events, and a series of visits to Asiatic countries of the North, East, South, and Mid-ocean. In spite of the well-conceived plan, this is not the geography reader that teachers of the intermediate grades have been looking for: not enough learning will take place to justify its use.

In the first place, there are too many errors in fact; a few are alarming because they concern matters important for understanding the people; the greater proportion of the errors, however, are on matters of less moment. In other cases, information is presented in a way that will be misleading to pupils.

Another factor forestalls a justifiable amount of learning: the author introduces a great number of topics and dismisses them with little more than a reference. For example, in commenting on the early history of China, she mentions that scholars "have read the carved messages on ancient tortoise shells and on 'oracle bones,' the buried bones of oxen that roamed over the plains three thousand years ago" (p. 68). This brief statement will be meaningless to many students; some imaginative ones will jump to the wrong conclusion. Either the fascinating story of 'oracle bones' should be told here, or the whole matter left for study by older pupils or adults. Quite in contrast, the author has made some matters admirably clear; pupils will be sure to know what an atoll is, a volcanic island, the taiga and tundra. But too seldom is this the case.

A third weakness is the frequent selection of relatively unimportant items to the exclusion of facts important for understanding the people and the geography of the land. To illustrate by example: the author makes a generalization in two sentences about the Parsees of India, that they are "prosperous looking," "among the most modern and most successful," and she gives one fact. "On one of the hills of Bombay are the gruesome 'Towers of Silence.' These are round open structures where the Parsees lay their dead, and where vultures, flying down from the trees near by, soon pick the bones clean" (p. 359). Emphasis on one strange custom, without explanation of its proper place in a people's whole way of living, is now generally deplored. Such items are earmarks of outdated readers now discarded, and of books condemned as "tourist." A more valuable conception for our times would be the leading part Parsees have been playing in developing Indian commerce and industry. Such a statement would have added point since a modern steel mill pictured on the same page resembles the Parsee-owned Tata Iron and Steel Works, said to be the largest in the British Empire.

In this book, the vocabulary and the style of writing are not consistently well adapted to pupils of the intermediate grades, usually defined as fourth, fifth, and sixth. Specific inquiry revealed that average sixth graders had found the book too difficult unless the teacher made many explanations; it appears that eighth graders or slow-learning ninth graders could read it; the subject matter, however, is not directly suitable to their usual course of study.

Pupils able to read *The Pacific* will like the

amount excellent photographs and will find many chapters interesting; they will have some information that is true, important, and up to date; but they will also have too much misinformation and too many misconceptions. The book is not good enough for school use in this decade.

ETHEL E. EWING

Institute of Pacific Relations  
New York City

CONTEMPORARY AMERICA, THE NATIONAL SCENE SINCE 1900. By Harvey Wish. New York: Harper, 1945. Pp. xvi, 657. \$4.00.

Dr. Wish presents a book which should be useful as a textbook for the student of recent American civilization and valuable to teachers of American history and modern problems. It should also prove to be good reading—and informative—to the general reader.

The author's approach is highly topical. Particularly stimulating and contributory to the breadth of treatment is his utilization of anthropological, sociological, and psychological data; all the social sciences—and the humanities too for that matter—are employed to shed light on the historical problem. The wide range of topics reveals the influence not only of the social and economic historians but of the historians of social ideas as well. Topical subjects include: Realism in Politics and History; Social Darwinism and the Decline of Competition; The Temper of Progressivism; Wilson Rescues the Madero Revolution; The Chaos of Reconstruction; The Psychology of Restricted Opportunity; The Coming of Age of Native Music. Inevitably, this broad range invites an occasional reaction against superficiality; however, the very value of this book stems from its author's non-parochial approach and the likelihood that its study will inculcate a deeper comprehension and appreciation of the diverse themes and forces within the history of a period.

It cannot be denied that the extremely topical organization has made for easy writing in certain areas. Either a broader organization or a greater effort to trace inter-relations might strengthen the work. And to carp a bit: it is well to stress the effect of the automobile on rural cultures, but the student of contemporary American education must raise an eyebrow at the generalization that "The backward little red schoolhouse yielded to the central, well-equipped, consolidated school served by the bus" (p. 9).

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A serious criticism is that Dr. Wish in certain areas tries too hard to achieve objectivity in the trying field of contemporary history. The author is probably under no obligation to advance a strongly consistent viewpoint of his own; yet on such topics as TVA and the farm problem it appears to this reviewer that he stops short of thorough historical analysis and interpretation. For example, in treating the AAA he utilizes the hackneyed episode of "the wholesale slaughtering of pigs" without adequately evaluating the social and economic context. Moreover, when he allows Herbert Hoover to speak from his page characterizing the AAA as "an economy of scarcity" (p. 448), I think that he is under obligation to point out the intrinsic irony of the circumstance. On the other hand, it is good to see the way a constructive point of view dominates his treatment of such issues as anti-semitism and isolationism.

If utilized as a textbook, the teacher is likely to enjoy the experience of students' reading beyond their assignments. The book is readable and commands interest. The illustrations are well selected and as diverse in topical content as the text. A critically annotated bibliography adds to its value as a text and guide for students.

RYLAND W. CRARY

Iowa City, Iowa

**THE AMERICAN WAY OF LIFE.** By Harold Underwood Faulkner, Tyler Kepner, and Hall Bartlett. Rev. ed. New York: Harper, 1945. Pp. xviii, 739.

According to the authors' statement, emphasis in this text "is placed on the use of history in terms of today's values and on the activity and performance of the pupil in terms of understanding of those values." Now the writers of textbooks are forever promising much, and toward such statements one acquires a certain skepticism if not the jaundiced eye. However, in this revised and reorganized edition these authors treat the reader to a work that is both highly consistent with its avowed purposes and effective in achieving them.

The ten concepts on which units are based have been well selected in relation to what actually matters to students. As with the previous edition, some teachers and students may have difficulty in recognizing the book for an "American History." It is that—and more; it is quite largely what it purports to be, a course of study

on the "American Way of Life," a social science course in the best sense. Data from sociology, political science, and economics supports the historical approach in the development of such units as: America, Blessed by Nature, Becomes the Crossroads of the World's People; Americans Choose a Democratic Government; Americans Ever Seek a Better Life; America Faces the Problem of Putting Her House in Order. Particularly striking is the initial approach to the study of American life and history by way of a descriptive analysis of the peoples who have assembled here.

These writers, furthermore, have some appreciation of what adaptation of writing style and vocabulary for high school students means. The intimate, personalized, narrative style employed, together with the wealth of illuminating detail, should do much to create understanding in the mind of a student reader, rather than to encourage him to mere verbalized reactions.

The study helps are actually likely to be helpful. By and large, the illustrations are good; some have a real punch (e.g., pp. 13, 281, 313, 640, 641, 644, 657, 685). I think some Nebraskans might feel misrepresented by the picture on page 636; "people who live near the seaboard" might get a further wrong notion here. (Subsequent travel may broaden their view, however.) Graphic aids and maps are selected to make a point and do so.

Most concepts are well developed. The treatment of Unit VI—The American Worker Struggles for a Square Deal—deserves special commendation for its forthright, objective, and honest handling of a vital question. The handling of the farm problem is competent, but not as strong as the labor unit. The authors no doubt realize with this reviewer that circumstances have already made the book inadequate in one area. The *New Yorker* to the contrary notwithstanding, there are no clichés where the atomic bomb is involved. I think the gentlemen will want to do something about strengthening the approach to internationalism. For a new concept has been added—The People Get Together for World Order, Or Else—.

RYLAND W. CRARY

Iowa City, Iowa

**ECONOMICS FOR OUR TIMES.** By Augustus H. Smith. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1945. Pp. xii, 534.

This text for high school is inclusive in scope, is mainly traditional in dealing with principles, is



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largely descriptive of processes and concepts, consists to considerable degree of giving meanings of words, and is "safe." Controversial matters are usually presented pro, one, two, three, etc., and contra, one, two, three, etc. Usually a student would get no attitude for or against an issue.

In the appendix there are six pages of references, ten pages of glossary, and a list of motion pictures and their descriptions covering nine pages. At the end of a chapter there are usually these aids: (a) questions on facts presented in the chapter; (b) questions for discussion and application; (c) topics for floor talks and written reports; (d) a topic for debate; (e) references for furthering information; and (f) a problem situation with questions on the problem. There is an adequate index of twelve pages.

There are numerous pictures, ranging in size from about a quarter page to a full page, a few cartoons, and a few graphs. These use up about 20 per cent of the pages.

While the text is largely descriptive, it does deal with principles. In theory it is mainly conventional, as in dealing with the static concept of the relations between price, demand, and supply (pp. 147, 439, 441), how interest rates are

determined (p. 300), or the differential theory explanation of profits (pp. 307-08). There are instances of stating the obvious, as in noting the prevalence of radios in homes (pp. 358-59) and explaining who consumers are (p. 22).

A reader would be left in doubt about the soundness of some proposals, such as: (a) the use of credit control to stabilize business activity (p. 444), and (b) measures for controlling the price level (pp. 193-95). One may get the wrong concept of (a) the amount of rediscounting (p. 194), (b) the wages non-union men get as compared to union men in the same shop (p. 372), or (c) the right of an employer to discharge men for union affiliation (p. 391).

A reader might expect greater emphasis on some problems, controversies, and situations, but would be disappointed because of inadequate emphasis. This might be true of these topics: absentee ownership (p. 120), stock dividends (p. 124), the main business of a commercial bank (p. 218), the need of the United States for an import balance (pp. 260-70), slighting of cartels in the treatment of monopoly (pp. 330-31), inheritance and the status of privilege (pp. 11-12), the advantage of employers over employees before

the law and courts before 1932, and real planning (p. 452).

There is some confusion in the use of the words draft, bill of exchange, and trade acceptance (pp. 211, 256), in the statement that all reserves of member banks are in the reserve banks (p. 225), and in the statement that dividends are paid from profits (p. 123).

The book is useful and acceptable as a high school text. The lists of references include liberal books. There is a good diagram on economic systems (p. 483). The author is rightfully critical about using public works as a stabilizer. He makes clear the nature of company unions. There are many good and excellent features in the book, including its attractive external appearance.

WALDO F. MITCHELL

Indiana State Teachers College

AMERICAN HOUSING: PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS. By Miles L. Colean and the Housing Committee of the Twentieth Century Fund. New York:

Twentieth Century Fund, 1945. Pp. xxii, 456. \$3.00.

The construction of dwellings for the population of the United States has lagged far beyond the necessities. For most of the ten years of depression in the 1930's, and for the four war years that followed, building activity was virtually in suspense. In the meantime children continued to be born as usual and marriages took place, creating a demand for homes. It is estimated that nearly a million new homes each year for the next decade will be needed to catch up with the deficit. It is not at all certain that this rate will be achieved, but it does seem clear that it is possible. The housing survey staff offers in the present study a most careful and thorough analysis of the whole matter. It is a distinguished and valuable piece of research.

The obstacles to efficiency in the construction of houses lie not in any single place, but are distributed widely in our economic system and are not subject to any easy removal by act of will. Among the more formidable barriers are: the structure of urban land values, the inner work-

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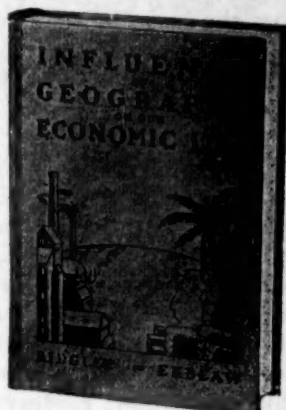
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ings of the construction industry, the practises of financing of home construction, the rules and practises of labor unions, and many others. The study indicates clearly the nature of the resistance encountered when attempts are made to clear the obstacles. For example, urban land values maintain a rigid and high level because of the speculative hope of further population and industrial growth. Individual land owner, banks, real-estate dealers, local government officials, local businessmen, find it to their immediate interest to keep up this unreal structure, even though by so doing they limit the new construction of dwellings. It is of interest on this point that even within the eight members of the Housing Committee there is dissent from a majority recommendation that the right to use the power of eminent domain be used to stimulate housing activity.

While the analysis of the causes of the housing deficiency is balanced and complete, and the recommendations of the Committee essentially sound, it is not certain that the solution will follow smoothly. There remains the political and administrative problems of putting the measures into effect, and making them operate. It is no

criticism of the experts that made the present study to recognize that the hardest part is still ahead. For those who want to understand the general situation in the field of American housing, however, it would be hard to imagine a more comprehensive and useful source.

ROBERT E. L. FARIS

Syracuse University

**EDUCATION FOR INSTALLMENT BUYING.** By Adrian Rondileau. Contributions to Education, No. 902. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944. Pp. iv, 70. \$1.85.

"This study was undertaken to develop principles and techniques of education for installment buying which should be based primarily on a thorough, objective analysis of consumers' installment buying and practices." The key assumption was that in a democracy the consumer has the right to know what he is buying and how much he is paying when using time-paying credit. Dr. Rondileau believes that an informed public





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One of the Newson Social Studies Series, which also includes *Democracy in America*, *Using Dollars and Sense*, *Banking: How It Serves Us*, and *The Constitution: An Instrument of Democracy*.

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is necessary to curb widespread abuses and to encourage sound control of installment selling. The author used the term "installment selling" to indicate that the installment plan is basically a seller's way of getting business.

Mount Pleasant, Michigan, was chosen as the place for a survey. This town has both urban and rural characteristics. It has a large recent population. It is a college town and therefore familiar with, and friendly to, studies made by college students. For these reasons the author believed the results might be somewhat representative and the chance for gross errors would be minimized. Students from the Central Michigan College of Education, who had had some previous experience in the interview technique, were chosen to make the survey. Further training to insure more objective interviewer technique was given. A list of some thirty pertinent questions was drawn, these to be asked of both installment and non-installment buyers. A sampling of these follows (combined and sometimes reworded by your reviewer):

Why did you use the installment plan?

Would you have paid the same for the article if you had bought for cash?

If installments were not paid on time, could they fine you? Could they take back the article? Could they take part of your (husband's) salary?

Does installment selling have anything to do with depression?

Does the State of Michigan or the United States make any rules about the way installment contracts must be written?

Did you study Economics in school?

Exactly what percent per year were you required to pay on the unpaid balance?

What percent would you have been required to pay if you had borrowed the money rather than pay on installments?

To supplement this survey an Installment Selling Test was constructed and given to 129 freshman students in Central Michigan College of Education. The author warns that care must be taken in drawing inferences from data obtained through interview schedules. Yet the results of the test seem to confirm the data from the interview schedule.

What conclusions were reached from this study? (1) A striking proportion didn't know where the article was purchased, or how much less the cash price was, or whether they were still buying on the installment plan. (2) A widespread ignorance or indifference about the importance of reading and understanding the installment contract was prevalent. (3) Much indifference was found regarding investigation of alternate ways of obtaining credit. (4) The

# ECONOMICS FOR OUR TIMES

**By Augustus H. Smith**

Formerly Chairman, Department of Social Studies

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knowledge of men and women concerning installment buying was approximately equal. (5) Age, amount of schooling, or socio-economic status made little difference in knowledge and use of installment buying.

Dr. Rondileau in his summary makes certain recommendations for teachers regarding installment buying. This subject should be treated largely in connection with other consumer education subjects; stress should be laid in planning for and understanding thoroughly any and all obligations contracted under the installment plan; appropriate material for installment buying should be included as part of other units or as separate units of instruction; finally it would be advisable to teach various buying methods as early as the sixth or the seventh grade and continue this through the college level.

E. F. JERROW

John Hay High School  
Cleveland, Ohio

**PATHS TO BETTER SCHOOLS.** Twenty-Third Yearbook. Washington: American Association of School Administrators, 1945. Pp. 415. \$2.00.

**NEW SCHOOLS FOR A NEW CULTURE: EXPERIMENTAL APPLICATIONS FOR TOMORROW.** By Charles M. MacConnell, Ernest O. Melby, and Christian O. Arndt. New York: Harper, 1943. 2nd ed. Pp. xi, 229. \$2.50.

Of the two books here reviewed, the first is an attempt to mark out a path for the immediate future of American education. The second deals with an experiment at the secondary level, the results of which hold out certain definite implications for future teacher training, secondary school curriculum organization, and methods of instruction.

The purpose of *Paths to Better Schools* is to indicate needed improvements in American education which may be considered reasonable goals for the next ten years. In the Foreword to the volume, which was prepared by a commission of ten members, the authors state that "No one will find easy paths to better schools." Furthermore they state that they have "set up no final list

of goals, no infallible collection of procedures, no guarantee of success." The authors do claim that the book "should help many laymen and educators, however, to see more clearly 'what was already there, perhaps, but dim.'" Anyone who reads the book will agree that the claim is modest.

The authors of the book concern themselves with a discussion of such important topics as equalization of educational opportunities, federal aid, school finance, governmental control, physical fitness of American youth, preparation of boys and girls for occupational efficiency, citizenship training, improved methods of teaching, and the classroom teacher.

The first and sixth chapters, "Equal and Universal Access to Educational Opportunities" and "Those Who Teach," are perhaps the most informative. Chapter I is especially well illustrated and is worthy of careful reading. Some of the other chapters seem very general in nature, certainly more general than one might expect.

One of the most desirable features of the book is the "We believe" series of statements which immediately precede each chapter. Two examples are cited to illustrate the nature of these statements: (1) "The great weakness in the school health service has been the failure to develop methods of preventing and correcting defects which are reported in the same frequency year after year"; (2) "At least an additional billion dollars annually is needed to provide a reasonably adequate, uniform, minimum opportunity of education for all youth."

The last 155 pages of the book are devoted to a listing of 105 selected references, the constitution and by-laws of the A.A.S.A., a list of members, an index of persons, and a subject index.

In *New Schools for a New Culture*, the authors present a description of an experimental core unit which was cooperatively established and conducted from 1938 to 1942 by the Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois, and the School of Education of Northwestern University. The core unit was established to train teachers in actual classroom situations and to develop educational procedures and methods designed to improve democratic life.

This interesting book is one that all persons who follow frontier movements in education will

want to read. Besides the description of the core program and how it was started, the book presents a brief survey of American schools today, which, by the way, are accused of not having fulfilled their democratic expectation. The authors deal with some of the social factors in American life that have received too little emphasis in our schools—evaluation of pupil progress, school and parent relationships—and boldly maintain that the schools of tomorrow will deal with real problems, actual materials, and significant situations.

But perhaps the most interesting chapter, and the one that many will wish to examine carefully and possibly reread several times, presents a discussion of some of the thousands of questions and objections raised by students, parents, teachers, and others. Three examples of the questions raised and discussed are: "Why do you waste so much time, especially at the beginning of the first year?" "Are high school students capable of planning their work under their own direction?" "After you have organized a topic what do you do if no one wants to work on some particular part of it?"

This is a must book for anyone vitally interested in secondary education.

JOE PARK

Northwestern University

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MESSAGES  
TO AMERICAN  
SCHOOL TEACHERS

No. 14

## We Can't Back Into The Future

By ELIZABETH IRELAND, Superintendent of Public Instruction, State of Montana

OUR NATION no longer is the greatest provincial civilization in the world. Our ships sail the seven seas and all the skyways. We have become the greatest traders and travelers on earth.

If the United States is to maintain a world-wide influence, prominence, power and respect, the level of general education must be raised. No longer can we back into the future while looking at the past. The future must be faced head-on.

In these days, eternal vigilance should be exercised to instill in youth a high regard for democratic institutions and procedures, and the basic principles of the American way of life.

The youth of our land should be given abundant opportunity to inform themselves on current social, economic and scientific matters, and I know of no better or more pleasant way of securing such information than through *The Reader's Digest*, which contains present-day articles of lasting interest.

The Digest is widely used in the schools of Montana, and it supplies a definite need, for however valuable textbooks may be, they must be supplemented by just such varied and interesting briefs of current affairs and happenings as it offers from month to month.

I recommend it highly as a guide to the formation of right ideals in the minds of American youth, and to the evaluation of those principles which are basic in the government of a free people.

**The Reader's Digest**

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